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FACULTY RESEARCH EDITION

of

The Savannah State College Bulletin

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OF

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THE SAVANNAH STATE COLLEGE

Volume 11, No. 2

Savannah, Georgia

October, 1957

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The men and women who conduct learning activities in the college determine to a large extent the nature of the product. Much of what students learn can be traced directly to factors other than lectures, reading, recitations, discussions, and examinations. The learning of students includes the methods, the processes, and the approaches of teachers to problems in living. An active growing faculty helps students to develop habits that lead to continuous growth.

This issue contains a number of studies by faculty members of Savannah State College and one by a faculty member of Fort Valley State College. It is encouraging to see new contributions and the variety of interests. The use of research methods to solve institutional problems as well as individual problems is a desirable characteristic of college faculties. The College is glad that the Board of Regents has continued to make such studies possible. It is hoped that these studies will encourage and stimulate the present contributors and other members of the staff to initiate and continue studies which provide for better educational opportunities here at the College and in the field of higher education.

W. K. Payne
President

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Research Note on the Methodology Employed in Training Interviewers For a Study Utilizing the Intensive Interview Techniques

by

R. Grann Lloyd

and

John H. Camper

Increasingly refined intensive interview techniques are being used in socio-economic research. Intensive interview techniques are especially useful when the investigator is primarily interested in determining patterns of action and thought. The use of these techniques, however, requires special training. This research note is designed to share the experience derived from training interviewers to use a semi-structured interview schedule for the first time.

Probably, the most significant feature of this technique is its objectivity. The materials were prepared in advance, with all interviewers making the same inquiries of interviewees selected according to well-established sampling procedures. Hence, the findings afford a representative cross section of prevailing community thought.

One characteristic of the semi-structured interview technique employed was to use open-end questions which though leaving the interviewee stimulus free tended to structure the responses. It is believed that the use of this type of interview schedule tended to maximize the variety of response, to reduce to a minimum guidance and direction by the interviewer, and to allow the interviewee greater freedom of expression. Hence, whereas the semi-structured questions used did not focus attention on any particular phase of the stimulus situation, they did tend to circumscribe the informant's responses. The individuals interviewed were, within the limits prescribed by the semi-structured questions, free to give expression regarding the things of most significance to them. This non-directive approach may be used with much profit in exploratory studies.

The interviewers used in this study were primarily junior level college students in a teacher-education program. However, a minority of them were mature individuals pursuing studies in an adult education program. Because of its relation to the successful use of semi-structured interview sched-

ules and/or open-end questions, it seems not without significance to emphasize their maturity and training at this point. Many facts, which though relevant are not specifically solicited by the interview schedule, might be revealed which an interviewer without adequate prior academic training may neither observe nor record. Whereas it would have perhaps been more desirable to have the interviews conducted by college graduates, it is believed that the thorough training received by the interviewers in the use of intensive interview techniques, coupled with their enthusiasm, resulted in a creditable explorative study.

The training period for the interviewers who conducted this study extended over a period of ten days. This training was initiated with a five days orientation period, with attention focused on (a) the sampling design employed, (b) the nature, scope, and objectives of the survey, (c) the interview schedule, with particular reference to the semi-structured schedule or questionnaire, and (d) the intensive interview techniques. The primary objectives of this initial training period were (1) to acquaint the interviewers with the nondirective approach and the mechanics of the interview schedule, (2) to acquaint them with techniques that generally secure usable responses, and (3) to familiarize them with the objectives underlying each question. The remaining portion of the training period was devoted to practice interviews among the interviewers themselves and conducting interviews in non-sample areas. After each session of practice interviews and/or interviews in non-sample areas evaluation sessions were held with the trainees. Each question was carefully edited with the interviewer in order to give the interviewer a thorough understanding of the question, to correct recording and procedural errors, and to eliminate deficiencies. Indeed, these evaluation sessions involved a qualitative analysis of the completed interview schedules.

The interviewers were urged to become familiar with and observe the following criteria of a successful interview:

1. Help the interviewee feel at ease by meeting him cordially—with a pleasant greeting and by calling his name.
2. Provide an atmosphere conducive to a good interview and allow the interviewee to "get settled"—to get the "feel" of the situation before plunging into the interview.
3. Be sincere.
4. Make the interview a cooperative undertaking.
5. Avoid approaches that might destroy rapport and arouse antagonisms, but uncover the real issue or difficulty.

6. Seek a positive—a “yes” response at the very beginning. Often the interviewee will take a “yes” response cue and go on from there.
7. Do not embarrass the interviewee unnecessarily. The interview is not, and must not, be allowed to become an inquisition.
8. Face the facts professionally.
9. Alleviate the shock of disillusionment.
10. Listen—let the interviewee tell his own story in the way he wants to tell it.
11. Avoid a patronizing attitude and use your sense of humor.
12. Avoid interruptions and achieve something definite.

Since the research design specified that the interviewers should enter 1000 homes in the Savannah-Chatham County community, a large number of interviewers were needed. Hence, it was necessary to train a relatively large number of individuals. On the other hand, since the questions were semi-structured in advance, relatively little skill was required of the interviewer; moreover, the chances of the interviewer injecting his own bias were reduced to a minimum. Furthermore, the interview schedule was carefully designed with a view to gathering data in a manner affording fairly simple analysis. This design made it possible to use some volunteers in the analysis of the data who had no previous training—a possibility that would not have existed if the questions had been unstructured or in an analysis based primarily on the interpretation of complex data. Thorough training in the use of intensive interview techniques, together with participation in the analysis, gave the interviewers a satisfying sense of identification with the total research survey.

The Role of the Ectodermal Crest In the Developing Wing Of the Chick Embryo

by

Yvonne T. Grantling

I. Introduction

The embryo of the chick has been repeatedly employed in extensive studies on morphogenesis and differentiation. Recently, however, the development of the appendage buds of the chick embryo have been studied with the purpose of following the pattern of differentiation in a more or less independent system. These studies involve the development of the young appendage buds on the chorio-allantoic membrane. Much fruitful information has been obtained from this type of investigation. Most recently Saunders (1948) and Zwillig (1952) have emphasized an interaction between the ectodermal crest of the wing bud and the underlying subadjacent mesoderm in the proximal distal growth of the appendage components.

Warren (1934) reported that definite bones would be missing in the definitive wing upon removal of the anterior or posterior halves of the wing bud. He indicated that a mosaic pattern of wing parts is resident in the mesoderm of the three-day old wing bud.

Hansborough (1954) removed plugs of mesoderm varying in sizes from 5% to 50% without disturbing the distally located ectodermal crest of the four-day old embryo wing bud. He observed that since complete regulation can take place after the removal of one-third to one-half of the tissue from the bud, the mosaic arrangement of materials for the future wing parts if present is not a rigid one.

Wolff and Hampe (1956) excised an intermediate segment of the three day old limb bud and transplanted it on the chorio-allantoic membrane. The terminal cap was replaced on the base of the limb bud. The operated bud forms a perfect leg and the transplanted fragment gives rise to several bone elements. Their evidence showed that regulation is sub-total in that only the fibula and first digit is absent. They termed this "regulation intermediaire."

Hunt (1932) grafted wing buds of embryos ranging in age from forty-eight hours to seven days old to embryos eight to ten days old for the purpose of analyzing the dif-

ferentiation of the limb buds and the extent to which the chief components or limb, bone and muscle are self differentiating. He observed that the muscle of the chick limbs are capable of initial independent differentiation, but they do not maintain this independency.

Zwilling (1952) transferred the ectoderm from three day chick embryo wing buds to the mesoderm of the leg bud denuded of its ectoderm. He concluded that although the presence of the apical ectoderm is a specific requisite for limb out growth, it has no influence on the determination of the limb type (i.e. leg or wing).

II. Materials and Methods

The eggs used in this experiment were obtained from New Hampshire Red Hens from the Poultry Department of the University of Maryland. They were incubated at 38 degrees Centigrade for a period of 31½ days (stages 21-24 of the Hamburger-Hamilton series). Before operating each egg was candled and the site of the embryo marked. The small end of the egg was sterilized with 70% alcohol and a small hole was made from which ½ cc. of albumin was removed with a 5 cc. syringe. With a rotary drill, a window 1.5 cm. square was drilled in the egg through which the operations were made.

After exposing the embryo, the amnion and chorion were deflected to expose further wing bud. An incision was made into the ectodermal crest with number 12 sewing needles which were sharpened to a fine point. Portions of the crest were stripped off with micro-forceps. After the operations were completed camera lucida sketches were made of the bud. The amniotic folds were then pressed together with the micro-forceps to insure their union and to prevent the deformation of the bud during future development. The window was firmly sealed with cellophane tape and the eggs were replaced in the incubator. Development was allowed to continue until the tenth day at which time the embryos were recovered and fixed in 10% formalin. Each operated wing was observed for morphological changes and camera lucida sketches were made for comparison with the controls. The embryos were not stained for the study of their skeleton.

III. Observations

TABLE I

<i>Crest Removed</i>		<i>No. Operations</i>	<i>No. Survivals</i>	<i>Results</i>	
				<i>Normal</i>	<i>Abnormal</i>
Anterior	½	121	68	13	55
Middle	½	47	11	0	11
Posterior	½	87	58	0	58
Total		255	137	13	124

Table I shows that a total of 255 embryos were operated upon of which 137 survived. The embryos operated upon were divided into three categories. In the first group in which the anterior third of the crest area was removed, there were 121 such operations of which 68 embryos survived. In the second group in which the middle third of the crest was excised, there were 47 operations of which 11 embryos survived. In the third group where the posterior third of the crest was removed, there were 87 operations of which 58 embryos survived. In the first group (ant. $\frac{1}{3}$ removed) 13 of the 68 surviving embryos were normal. In the second group (middle $\frac{1}{3}$ removed) there were no normal embryos of a total of 11 survivals. In the third group (posterior $\frac{1}{3}$ removed) all of the 58 surviving embryos were abnormal.

Results for the different excisions:

A. Anterior one-third excised

Upon removing the anterior one-third of the ectodermal crest of the wing bud, there were 13 normal definitive wings and 55 abnormal wings. The abnormal wings in this group were expressed in the complete absence of digit two.

B. Middle one-third excised

Removal of the middle-third of the ectodermal crest of the bud produces drastic abnormalities in the definitive wing. There is a characteristic absence of all the wing parts distal to the humerus. In other cases, the entire wing was absent.

C. Posterior one-third excised

When the posterior third of the ectodermal crest is removed, the abnormalities are more pronounced than those produced when the anterior one-third of the crest is excised, but less so than when the middle third is removed. The abnormalities range from the complete absence of digits 2, 3, and 4, to the absence of the radius and ulna.

IV. Interpretations

In the light of the data reported here and those reported by Warren (1934), Hansborough (1954), Wolff and Hampe (1956), it can be concluded that the factor which influences the outgrowth of wing components resides in the ectodermal crest of the early bud. Its absence in the wing bud of the wingless embryo as Zwillling (1949) has demonstrated, is responsible for the lack of a definitive wing in the older chick. Its injury or removal, as Saunders has demonstrated, causes a deficiency in wing parts of the definitive wing or their complete absence. The work reported here is the initial step in plotting the areas of the

crest ectoderm which seem to be specific in their influence on the elaboration of distal wing parts. Further studies may result in a complete fate map of inductive regions and their specific influences on the differentiation and growth of wing components.

V. Summary and Conclusions

1. Portions of the ectodermal crest of the wing bud have been excised for the purpose of studying the factors operating in the growth and the elaborations of the parts of the definitive wing.
2. When the apical ectodermal crest of the wing bud is damaged or injured an abnormal wing develops.
3. Removal of the anterior third of the crest results in the growth of a normal wing or the absence of digit 2.
4. When the middle third of the crest is removed, there is a complete absence of the distal wing parts or the presence only of the humerus.
5. Removal of the posterior third of the apical crest results either in the absence of all the digits or the complete absence of the digits, radius and ulna.
6. The ectodermal crest of the wing bud determines the growth and the differentiation of the future wing parts of the definitive wing.

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A Report of the Persistence of a Group of Entering College Freshmen

by

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Admission officers and other college officials anticipate rapid enrollment increases during the next few years. This prospect of increased enrollment calls for long-range educational planning and careful consideration of student and college characteristics relative to the retention and withdrawal of students. Such deliberations may lead to modifications and revisions of programs pertinent to admissions, recruitment, and instruction.

This report is an examination of the retention and academic progress of a group of entering freshmen over a four-year period at The Fort Valley State College.

The total entering group numbered 227. The group under consideration, however, consists of 215 students who registered as entering-freshmen in September, 1952. Of this freshmen group, 80 were men. All of the students were graduates of Georgia high schools and were residents of the state at the time of admission.

The Academic Quarters Registered

The freshmen of September, 1952 could have been registered twelve full quarters by June, 1956 and could have been graduated by that date. Table I describes the distribution of students according to the total academic quarters registered during this period. Throughout this report summer quarters attended are not included.

However, among the forty-six graduates of June, 1956, 13.1 per cent of the students had attended one or more summer quarters sometime during the four years. Correspondence courses or extension courses were taken by 3.7 per cent of the group.

It is noted from Table I that during this period 43.7 per cent of the students were registered for three quarters or less; 26.0 per cent were registered for all twelve quarters; while 21.1 per cent of the group were graduated at the end of the four years.

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS ACCORDING TO QUARTERS
REGISTERED FROM SEPTEMBER, 1952 TO JUNE, 1956

<i>Quarters Registered</i>	<i>No. of Students Registered</i>	<i>Per Cent of Students Registered</i>	<i>No. of Students Registered Per Qr.</i>
1	19	8.8	215
2	12	6.1	196
3	63	34.2	184
4	6	10.7	121
5	13	11.3	115
6	16	15.6	102
7	4	4.7	86
8	5	6.1	82
9	7	9.1	77
10	6	8.6	70
11	8	12.5	64
12	56	26.04	56
Total 215			
Number of graduates 46			
Per cent of Graduates 21.39			

The mean number of quarters registered was 5.95. Registration loss occurs markedly after the first three quarters. Of the group, 43.7 per cent of this group failed to register for the fourth quarter, 1953-1954; 56.2 per cent of the enter-freshmen registered at that time as compared with 85.5 per cent who registered the previous quarter. This is a loss of 29.3 per cent. The over-all loss after the third quarter of 1952-1953 was 14.4 per cent of the beginning group. Losses occurring thereafter average 4.54 per cent. Only 26.04 per cent of the students were registered twelve quarters.

Table II presents the distribution of students registered by number of consecutive quarters attended.

Of the students who were registered three consecutive quarters, 50.6 failed to register the fourth consecutive quarter. Those registered three consecutive quarters numbered 42.3 per cent of the group. More students failed to register after the third quarter of the freshman year, than any other quarter of any particular year.

Academic Action Taken Against the Group

Table III describes the administrative action taken against the group as a result of poor scholarship, transfers to other colleges, and drop-outs.

TABLE II
DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY CONSECUTIVE QUARTERS
REGISTERED FROM SEPTEMBER, 1952 TO JUNE, 1956

<i>No. of Consecutive Quarters</i>	<i>No. of Students Not Registered for Succeeding Quarters</i>	<i>No. Students Registered Per Quarter</i>	<i>Per Cent of Students Enrolled</i>
1	22	215	10.2
2	9	193	4.7
3	78	184	42.3
4	8	106	7.5
5	8	98	8.1
6	16	90	17.7
7	1	74	1.4
8	5	73	6.8
9	6	68	8.8
10	2	62	3.2
11	4	60	6.7
12	56	56	26.04
Total -----		215	

TABLE III
THE ACADEMIC ACTION TAKEN AGAINST THE GROUP
PARTITIONED BY QUARTERS REGISTERED

<i>Qtrs. Reg.</i>	<i>No. Reg.</i>	<i>Probation</i>		<i>Dropped</i>		<i>Returned</i>		<i>Dropped Not Returned</i>	
		<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>
1	19	7	36.8						
2	12	11	91.6	1	8.3			1	100.0
3	63	50	79.3	30	47.6			30	100.0
4	6	5	83.3	2	33.3	2	100.0		
5	13	11	84.6	4	30.8	4	100.0		
6	16	9	56.2	3	18.8	2	75.0	1	25.0
7	4	2	50.0	1	25.0	1	100.0		
8	5	3	6.0						
9	7	5	71.4	2	28.6	1	50.0	1	50.0
10	6	5	83.3	2	33.3	1	50.0	1	50.0
11	88	5	62.5						
12	56	18	32.1						
Total 215		134	62.3	45	20.9	11	24.4	34	15.3
Number of Graduates									
46		18	39.1						
% of entering group									
21.4			13.4						

Many of the original group felt some form of academic action during this period. Of the group, 62.3 per cent did run into scholastic difficulties, probation or dropping action. Relative to these categories, it is noted that 20.9 per cent of the students were dropped by the college at some time during the four-year period.

Of those dropped, 91.0 were registered for three quarters or less. Of those dropped and returned, 45.5 were registered six quarters or more.

Once again attention is drawn to the third quarter. A group of noticeable size were recipients of academic action at this point. Of the students registered for a total of three quarters, 79.3 per cent were on probation.

Of those students who were probation-bound sometimes during their stay at the college, 13.4 per cent were graduated within the expected time. The graduating group numbered 37.6 per cent against whom no academic action had ever been taken during their stay.

Relationship of Selected Variables to Quarters Registered

Generally relationships, or the making of comparisons, are interpreted by correlation coefficients or other statistical techniques. Far too often these tools are readily understood only to the specially initiated. Under these circumstances much of the effectiveness of the data is lost because of a lack of statistical sophistication. The expectancy table, on the other hand, is a simple, easy to construct, and easier to understand tool which presents the relationships in a language readily understood by the sophisticated and layman alike. The relationship between the number of quarters registered and the three variables taken separately, (1) cumulative average of high school performance, (2) percentile rank score on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination, 1952 edition, and (3) the first quarter grade-point average are graphically described in Table IV.

How long these freshmen remained in college as partitioned by these variables is indicated in the tables which follow.

Cumulative High-School Grade-Point Average

High-school cumulative averages were available for 201 students of this entering group of the Fall, 1952. Table IV presents these data. There is little progression of high-school grade-point averages in any group from one persistence group to another.

The mean of high-school averages is 1.32. Averages range from .30 to 3.0.

EXPECTANCY TABLE SHOWING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF QUARTERS REGISTERED AND TO HIGH-SCHOOL GRADE-POINT AVERAGE

NUMBER OF QUARTERS REGISTERED

[illegible]

Of those students entering college with high-school averages of "C" (1.0) or higher, 47, or 27.01 per cent, were registered twelve quarters. The twenty-seven entering the college with averages less than 1.0 dwindled to 29.6 per cent (8) who were registered twelve quarters.

There, seemingly, is no point in high-school averages at which we can expect a student not to persist for quite a few quarters or graduate. Perseverance and determination seem to have their own rewards. However, the chances of twelve quarter registration and graduation are considerably reduced by a low high-school grade-point average.

Percentile Rank Score on the Psychological Examination and the Number of Quarters Registered

Table V describes group persistence according to the percentile rank scores on the A.C.E. Psychological Examination (Edition 1952).

The students earning percentile rank scores of fifty and higher and who were registered for twelve quarters number 32.3 per cent (32). Of the total group, 20.95 per cent (22 students) entered college with an earned score of forty-ninth percentile or less and were registered twelve quarters. Once again, although at every percentile level a greater per cent of the group were registered for twelve quarters, there is little indication that psychological examination scores predict those who **will** persist. Generally, however, the higher the score, the better are the chances of persistence.

It seems likely that some students regardless of intelligence (as measured by this examination) will remain in college a considerable number of quarters. Caution should be exercised. A low score does not rule out a successful college career, in terms of graduation and twelve quarter registration **nor** does a high score assure twelve quarter registration or graduation.

First Quarter Grade-Point Average and the Number of Quarters Registered

College success is commonly measured in terms of how good is the first quarter grade-point average.

First quarter scholastic averages were obtained for 209 students as shown in Table VI.

The 2.0-3.0 group (12 students) accounted for 6, or 50.0 per cent of its members registered for twelve quarters. In contrast, the .70-.79 group, admittedly small (7 students), indicates that 33.3 per cent of its group registered for twelve quarters.

Once again, there is a disorderly progression of first-quarter averages from one group to another.

Summary

Under inspection was a group of 215 students who entered The Fort Valley State College as new freshmen in September, 1952. All were graduates of Georgia high-schools and were residents of the state at the time of admission.

1. Of the original group 26 per cent, or 56 students, were registered twelve quarters; 46, or 21.4 per cent, were graduated.
2. Although a loss in registration occurred throughout the twelve quarters, the greatest loss was after the third quarter (13.9 per cent).
3. A large number of the original group has some scholastic action taken against them sometime during their stay in the college (62.3 per cent). Of those students graduated in four years, 39.1 per cent (18) had experienced academic action.
4. During the four-year period 43.7 per cent of all freshmen were registered three quarters or less as compared with 26.04 per cent who were registered twelve quarters.
5. The three variables, high-school grade-point average, percentile rank score of the psychological examination, and the first quarter average, do little to indicate which student or group of students will persist. Student persistence is enhanced, however, by performance, high-school or first quarter (college), or test performance.

The first quarter grade-point average is the earliest definition of the worth of a student. This initial encounter between the student and college affords a measure of actual college performance that is readily available. This measure seems to be the better measure of prediction of persistence. The higher the measure of attainment in any one of the selected variables, the greater are the chances of persistence in terms of quarters registered. It seems that we are better able to identify the student who will probably persist than the one who will not. But after he has been identified, we can not be too certain that he will persist. Perhaps it would be well if attention turned to identifying those who can not and will not persist. Identification without doubt is needed.

Individual predictions are not warranted on the basis of the criteria presented in this report. We have all heard the faculty yelp when an "untouchable" does remain in college for twelve quarters and does graduate. The criteria discussed in this report are, in the main, merely a part of the growth pattern of the student. This pattern is a growing and dynamic one, not characteristically absolute or static.

The United Nations: A Scheme for Peace in Our Times

by

Alonzo T. Stephens

Since the dawn of civilization, man has been fighting wars and at the same time he has been fighting or struggling toward some scheme for a **lasting peace**. From this statement, we can easily see that there has always been the question of **peace** and **war**. What a paradox—**PEACE**

WITH WAR AND PEACE WITHOUT WAR.

It is strange that in weighing the forces that made for peace or war one hardly thinks to mention religion. Europe is predominantly Christian, yet for well nigh 2,000 years Christianity not only has proved unequal to the task of keeping its adherents from flying at each other's throats but often has actually aggravated their hatreds.¹

Many historians have written that each party or nation for the past 500 years attempted to justify their participation in a war by showing that God was on **their respective sides**. The Crusades were not the only religious wars. Even American presidents have attempted to **justify war** with such slogans—"To make the world safe for democracy" or as Joseph Louis Barrow put it in Yankee Stadium during World War II, "I know we are going to win because we have God on **our** side." In 1917 it is undeniably true that the strongest clamor for war came from the industrial East, an area with numerous churches, but which had an enormous trade and investment stake in the cause of tottering Allies. Thomas W. Lamont, of Morgan and Company, later estimated that 500,000 Americans had invested in loans to the Allies, and this group consisted of the more substantial and influential citizens.²

Winston Churchill, the great British Statesman and former Prime Minister, wrote that "The History of mankind is nothing more than a History of War." Even the Holy Bible carries numerous descriptions of wars, rumors of wars and preparation for war. If one were to examine the words and pages of the Bible, he would find possibly, except for the section which deals with Christ on Earth,

¹Erik Achorn, *European Civilization and Politics Since 1815*, New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1934, p. 382.

²C. C. Tansill, *America Goes to War*, Boston: 1938, p. 657, (a best seller with an isolationist bias), also Thomas A. Bailey, *A Diplomatic History of the American People*, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950, p. 644.

more dedication to war than to schemes or plans for peace. It is no wonder that Jesus Christ had such a terrible struggle trying to establish himself as the Prince of Peace.

Many of the European rulers attempted to establish and maintain peace, but they all wanted peace on their terms. In this group, the names of Julius Caesar, Otto Von Bismarck and Napoleon Bonaparte easily fall.

During the last half of the 19th century, from the approximate dates of 1865 to 1912, there was an anti-war feeling in Europe and as a result these cooperative agencies developed:

Monetary Union of the Latin States 1865

Scandinavian Monetary Union 1873

Copyright Union 1874

The Postal Union 1874

Telegraph Union 1875

The International Bureau of Weights and Measures
1875

The Patent Union 1883

Railway Tariff Union 1890

Customs Tariff Union 1890

Men thought with the establishment of these economic agencies, nations would have less desire to fight one another. Here again is a paradox. The agencies described above did lessen tension in some areas but in others, as was the case in Austria, Germany, France and England in July 1914, **faster communication only served to hasten war.**

In international politics during the same period rapid strides were made. In 1873, the Institute of International Law was organized. In 1891 the Bureau of International Peace was organized to serve as an intermediary between the peace societies in different countries.

In 1889 Nicholas II of Russia called a peace conference at the Hague, **but only twenty-six (26) nations participated.** Russia was suspected of having motives not stated and then too, England feared Russia's might and did not want her as an international leader. In 1907, a second Hague Conference was called and this time a more favored Nation under the leadership of Theodore Roosevelt called the menu—**Forty-four (44) nations** went to listen and the legislation resulting was directed **toward Germany.**

In spite of these moves toward peace, there was in evidence factors tending to intensify international hostility. These factors are still with us in 1956. They are:

Rise of Nationalism

Nationalistic Trends in Education

Jingo Press

International Anarchy
Exaltation of War
Mob Psychology
Race Consciousness
Colonialism
Desire for Independence
Struggle for Control of Raw Materials in Poor Countries

The above factors along with fear, want, hate, and unGodliness pushed the World into World War I. As the war neared a close, Woodrow Wilson, a great American statesman, began to hasten the end to his own life for certain principles called a "League of Nations." Although the majority of the American people did not understand his plea, his mark was made toward a permanent and lasting peace. Wilson wanted a community of understanding, but he failed to see his dream come true because he was attacked by politicians and because he was thirty (30) years too soon.

The League which the United States did not join was divided into five (5) major agencies.

THE ASSEMBLY—A representative body. It could advise, consider and deliberate. It met in Geneva.

THE COUNCIL—Composed of one delegate from each qualified member state. Here plans were formulated for the reduction of armaments, of advising means of protecting member states, but it had no drafting power or no army at its disposal.

THE PERMANENT SECRETARIAT—The first secretary was an Englishman—Sir Eric Drummond.

THE PERMANENT COURT OF INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE—Called the World Court.

THE INTERNATIONAL LABOR ORGANIZATION—Intended to raise the standards of workers throughout the world.

As Americans probably remember from their history classes, the League of Nations had no power. The nations **wanted peace** but **none wanted to pay the price**. The United States never joined. England withdrew much of its moral support. France was left almost alone to carry on the League's business because she was in constant danger. Russia eventually became a member but she found no guidance in a failing organization. In the 1920's Germany's republican government fell. Then in the 1930's Italy, Germany, Japan, all started to take a slice of their neighbor's territory as if they nourished on three squares of land as food every day. These aggressive acts were unchecked. By the end

of the decade the world was in its second war of universal destruction.

Perhaps by now one may feel that the writer has failed to deal directly with the United Nations: A Scheme for Peace in Our Time. On the contrary, he has been writing about united actions toward peace. He has attempted to point out that the development of the United Nations was a **long**, steady, **evolutionary** process. The roots of this organization are deep in world history and human struggle for a better life. This background is necessary for an understanding of why a new organization was needed. The writer shall hereinafter devote his explanation toward the organization of the United Nations and its successes with the intention of pointing out to Americans, and people the world over, that peace is available for mankind if he takes the right steps, and of course use the precepts of Christianity as the blueprint.

The United Nations organization was born in wartime and conceived by leaders of the Allies—Great Britain and the United States. Later France, China and Russia were invited to participate in this grand alliance for the defeat of the enemies and the establishment of peace.

On August 14, 1944 the Atlantic Charter was released by Franklin D. Roosevelt and Winston Churchill. On this historic date the basic principles of peace, after the defeat of Germany, were outlined. These principles became a part of the United Nations Charter.

On January 1, 1942 twenty-six (26) nations pledged a united effort toward the defeat of the Axis powers. In May 1943, a United Nations conference on Food and Agriculture was held and in October of this same year in the Moscow Declaration, China, Great Britain, the U.S.S.R., and the United States recognized the necessity for setting up a general international organization for peace. In November 1943 a United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Agency was set up. No less than forty-four (44) nations participated.

In August 1944 at the Bretton Woods Conference a bank and fund constitution was established. In October of this same year the Dunbarton Oaks Conference with China, the U.S.S.R., Great Britain and the United States drew up the second proposals for a General International Organization. More proposals were considered, introduced and adopted at the controversial Yalta Conference.

The evolutionary process was now becoming a fast moving revolutionary one. In April 1945, in spite of Roosevelt's illness and untimely death, the San Francisco Conference was held and fifty (50) nations drew up the United Nations Charter. One June 25, 1945, this charter was adopted and

the United Nations Organization was born, a new baby ready and eager to embark on a hard long road to peace.

This organization had one prime purpose: To do away with war and to build a better world for all mankind regardless of race, position or political affiliation. Two other motives are important: (1) To reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small, and (2) to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedoms. This new international organization was conservative in that it drew heavily upon the old, sick and ineffective LEAGUE OF NATIONS.

The main organs of the new United Nations are: A General Assembly, a Security Council, an Economic and Social Council, a Trusteeship Council, an International Court of Justice and a Secretariat. A quick glance at these agencies will reveal a great likeness to the old League of Nations. The closer and studied investigation will show that each agency is stronger. For example, the General Assembly has the permanent power to recommend measures for peaceful settlement of **any** situation regardless of origin, which threatens peace. Each delegation has only one vote. The General Assembly, therefore, is a World Parliament. It is significant that Madam Vijaya L. Pandit, Indian Ambassador to U.S.S.R., 1947-1949, an eloquent speaker against discrimination against Indian Nationals by the Union of South Africa in 1948, and Indian Ambassador to the United States in 1949, was the first woman to lead this agency in 1953-1954. Her presence in this agency gave hope to underprivileged and Colonial peoples throughout the entire globe.

Another major difference in the new United Nations is the role of the Security Council. This agency functions in continuous session. In addition to investigating and submitting cases to the Court of Justice, it may use force to preserve the peace.

The Economic and Security Council has done remarkable work toward the advancement of mankind. Its scope is broad, covering nine fields:

- Unemployment and economic development

- Transport and communication

- Fiscal reforms and stability

- Statistical analysis

- Population problems

- Social betterment

- Narcotic drugs

- Human Rights and the Improvement of the Status of Women

The International Court of Justice has been strengthened by the Security Council action in coming to its aid in enforcing a decision the former agency has made.

The Secretariat has a new role. By 1952 some sixty (60) nations were represented. Here Russia blocked the admission of nine (9) states while the United States blocked the admission of Albania, Bulgaria, Hungary, Rumania and the Chinese Communist Government.³

The United Nations in 1955 considered the admission of twenty-two (22) candidates or states among which were Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, Cambodia, Ceylon, Finland, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Japan, Jordan, South Korea, South Vietnam, Portugal, Rumania and Spain.⁴ Trygve H. Lie, the first secretary-general of the United Nations set a precedent by taking an active part in negotiations rather than contenting himself with the role of figurehead.

The World was elated by Christmas of 1955 with the admission of Bulgaria, Austria, Albany, Cambodia, Ceylon, Finland, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Jordan, Laos, Libya, Nepal, Portugal, Rumania and Spain. With the admission of these sixteen nations the United Nations could boast of a membership of seventy-six, but actually the world is now divided into three camps or three worlds. There is the "free" world of Western Alliances, the Communist World of the U.S.S.R., and Satellites, and the Third World-Nations not a member of either of the other two military blocs. This Third World is populated mostly by darker skinned races. Spain, Switzerland, the Union of South Africa and Yugoslavia are the major exceptions. As long as the World is divided into two and three camps the peace is not assured.

One of the major criticisms of the old League was the notion that it was created to preserve the status quo of the Allied nations thus guaranteeing the victory nations after 1919 the spoils at the expense of the weaker and defeated nations. Mr. Lie is accepting his new job as Secretariat wrote: "In the exercise of the responsibilities of promoting and preserving peace the Secretary-General of the United Nations must use his influence not for the interest of any nation or group of nations, but for the interests of the organization as a whole as he saw them."⁵

Probably one of the most approved moves made by Mr. Lie was his choice of Dr. Ralph J. Bunche as principal secretary of the commission to settle the Palestine question. In appointing Dr. Bunche Lie said: "The invasion of Pales-

³Russia through the veto blocked admission for Austria, Ceylon, Finland, Italy, Jordan, Korea, Portugal and Nepal.

⁴*The New York Times*, October 9, 1955.

⁵Trygve Halvdan Lie, *In the Cause of Peace: Seven Years With the United Nations*, New York: 1954, pp. 14-17 (First Secretary-General of the United Nations in 1946-1953, a native of Norway).

tine by the Arab states was the first armed aggression which the world had seen since the end of the war. The United Nations could not permit that aggression to succeed. . . ."⁶ One remembers Bunche's success and his elevation to the station of America's most popular and honored Negro. Significantly Mr. Lie made this observation: "It is obvious that there would not have been an armistice at this stage (in Palestine) without the skill and dedication of Ralph Bunche, and we were proud of him."⁷

The second Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld following the path cleared by Mr. Lie and stressing the necessity of aid to underdeveloped and undeveloped countries reported on July 12, 1955 this observation that "the large divide between productive capacity and human requirements in underdeveloped countries is the long-term economic problem facing our generation."⁸ He also said that while the world had increasingly come to understand the need for developing the underdeveloped countries, it did not appreciate sufficiently the urgency of the need.⁹

Time will not permit a step by step analysis of the machinery of the United Nations. The writer will, therefore, devote only a small portion of this discussion to some of the other accomplishments which have helped to strengthen the United Nations thereby making it a strong international organ for peace.

In 1954, the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization sent thirty-six (36) experts to twenty-four (24) countries to aid governments in establishing, revising or expanding annual food production in countries throughout the world.¹⁰ The resulting increase was about 25 per cent for those areas covered.

In 1955 the National Catholic Rural Life Conference pledged to work for: "National economic policies designed to achieve and maintain full employment with full and efficient production both in industry and agriculture."¹¹ This example is presented to show how the United Nations is influencing other agencies to take up this huge task of aiding all peoples in their respective areas.

A United Nations panel of 1954 looking into the racial situation in South Africa made a 121-page report to the General Assembly. In summary, the report carried this weighty observation: "The road to gradual integration is the only one that seems to be open, and it alone is likely to lead to a peaceful future acceptable to all parties."¹²

⁶*Ibid.*, p. 174.

⁷*Ibid.*, p. 192.

⁸*The New York Times*, July 13, 1955.

⁹*Ibid.*

¹⁰*The New York Times*, May 5, 1955.

¹¹*Ibid.*

¹²*The New York Times*, October 17, 1954.

In order to facilitate as easy understanding of world problems a compiled history in five languages is being written at the United Nations headquarters at the rate of 260,000 words a day. In spite of this seemingly rapid pace the United Nations has a backlog of papers all pre-1949, that have yet to be translated into Spanish, Russian, Chinese, English and French, the five official languages of the world organization of seventy-six (76) members.¹³

There are hundreds of illustrations one could use to point out activities carried on day by day in the United Nations. However, the writer will stop with this last example. In 1954 the United Nations reported that women delegates to this international organization were on the increase. In 1954, there was a total of twenty-eight (28) women as delegates of the General Assembly. Such states as Argentina, Guatemala, Cuba, the United States, Costa Rica, Sweden and Indonesia had women representing them in this great assembly. Here again one may see the rise in status of women at the **National** and **International** level.¹⁴

The reader is not to be left with the false impression that the United Nations has had a road of smooth sailing. There have been difficulties. The daily papers carry attacks against the U.N. The American Legion meeting at Miami, Florida during the month of October 1955 attacked the United Nations and demanded that it abolish its commission for UNESCO because there were some alleged Communists who should be fired or discharged. The United Nations stood the test of attack from the Legionnaires. On Thursday, October 13, 1955, the entire body of this great organization, the American Legion, beat down a move calling for the United States to withdraw completely from the United Nations. It is interesting to point out that the American Legion endorsed "principles and purposes of the United Nations," but insisted that "the United Nations charter be amended and strengthened to the end that the sovereignty of these United States be preserved."¹⁵ The original charter of the United Nations carries provisions and means through which this great international agency can be strengthened. Intelligent people do not burn the house down because ants are found in the sugar container.

In 1955, there were problems which called for immediate solution. France had walked out of the United Nations because of her problems in North Africa. In this eleventh year of United Nations growth, it seems that it would pass out of childhood to adolescence as an agency

¹³*Ibid.* (In 1955, when this report was carried in the New York Times, the membership totaled 60 nations; by the end of 1956 the membership was 80).

¹⁴*The New York Times*, October 3, 1954. (Mrs. Francis P. Bolton served in 1953 for the U. S.).

¹⁵*Savannah Morning News*, October 15, 1955.

for lasting peace. On October 9, 1955, Henry Cabot Lodge, Jr., described the United Nations as "the worlds' greatest single engine for influencing world opinion." The persuasive power of the U.N., he said "has prevented the eruption of world wars in spite of very dangerous situations in Iran, Greece, Israel, Kashmir, Indonesia and Korea."¹⁶

Many people, quite possibly some of you, have asked the question, How much does the U.N. cost? During the year 1952, exclusive of the costs of the Korean War, the United States contributed a total of \$97.6 million for all of its financial obligations to the United Nations. This amounts to roughly 62 cents per person each year, or just about the price of a good movie. For the entire 10 years, 1945-1955, the average cost per person was about \$5.60.

In spite of the fact that the United States has contributed as much as 70 per cent of the funds for voluntary programs such as technical assistance for underdeveloped areas, the international children's fund, the Korean reconstruction agency and the aid for Palestine refugees, the contributions represent only about 8 to 10 cents per capita or less than the cost of cleaning the streets of New York City. While the United States' contribution on a percentage basis is the largest of any, she does not lead in the per capita basis. Canada's contribution to the 1954 budget was 9.2 cents, New Zealand's 9.7 cents and Sweden's 9.5 cents. Iceland topped the list with 11 cents. All of these figures seem to indicate a very small price for peace.

As the year 1955 drew to a close, an increasing number of Americans expressed a desire for peace and a need for strengthening peoples who desired freedom from the Kremlin's tactics. Governor Harriman of New York, speaking to members of the American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations, made this observation:

There are many things we must do to rally and strengthen the free peoples. In addition to maintaining military defenses, we must identify ourselves with the hopes and aspirations of people everywhere. They need technical and economic assistance.¹⁷

The march of democratic governments toward a solution of world peace is not easy. On February 25, 1956, Senator Walter F. George, Chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee and Democratic spokesman on international affairs, warned Americans that they were not thinking seriously about Russia's role in the U.N. and also Russia's new look. In a statement, he made the observation that Russia was abandoning some of her past policies and was taking on some of the things we are doing.¹⁸

¹⁶*The New York Times*, October 9, 1955.

¹⁷*The New York Times*, December 7, 1955.

¹⁸*Savannah Morning News*, February 26, 1956.

It was also clear that Anglo-American relations in 1956, although seeming united to the world, were not all unity and agreement. President Eisenhower and Prime Minister Anthony Eden of England made the joint declaration:

We are parties to the Atlantic Charter, the United Nations Charter, the Potomac Charter and the Pacific Charter. In them we have, with our friends, dedicated ourselves to the goal of self government and independence of all countries. . . . A settlement between Israel and her Arab neighbors is the most urgent need.¹⁹

By mid-summer the Near East and Mediterranean countries were on the lips of many world leaders. Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld made a special trip to the Near East. When he returned he said: "There is no need for specific United Nations action by the General Assembly or the Security Council." A few months later he regretted this delay. On May 7, 1956, as the situation became acute, he urged quiet diplomacy by the Security Council.²⁰

In the Fall of 1956 the United Nations had so many problems to face, it was hard to separate the urgent from the most urgent. There were problems in India, China, Nationalist China, South Africa, French northwest Africa, and Germany, but the problems of Egypt and the Suez Canal were the most talked about. In Egypt—the West, Great Britain, France, Holland and the United States seemed more concerned because the oil, which the west needed so badly, came through the 103-mile waterway. These nations sought to have the Security Council endorse the international operation of the Suez Canal. Sir Selwyn Lloyd, British Foreign Secretary, and Christian Pineau, French Foreign Minister debated the six principles. But most important of all, it seemed that these men wanted the Security Council to play the role of Santa Claus and return "their" canal to them, which was nationalized by President Nasser on July 26, at least by Christmas.

No one can foretell the outcome of this dispute, but all thoughtful people the world over seemingly desired a just settlement. As negotiations continued it seemed that Russia was marching step by step, day by day, to her warm water window into the Mediterranean and subsequently into the world as a great sea power and a menace to the West.

Aside from dealing with problems of wars the United Nations made some advances in the areas of human betterment in 1956. In this year, countries and territories receiving assistance numbered over 100. By the start of 1956, over 1,400 international experts were working to promote better living conditions through improved agricultural and

¹⁹*Savannah Morning News*, February 28, 1956.

²⁰*Ibid.*, May 8, 1956.

industrial production, production methods, health, education, public administration and education.

Culturally, the United Nations had made progress. Rome, famed for centuries as a repository of art masterpieces, was selected by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization for the establishment of an international center for study of the preservation and restoration of cultural objects.²¹

In December as Christians were preparing for Christmas and the whole world was looking toward a New Year two major problems of the United Nations remained unsolved. Russia, one of the Big Five of the world and a member and organizer of the United Nations, was faced with revolts in Hungary which were labeled, because Russia used force to quench, as aggressive acts. Great Britain, Israel and France were criticized, for their movement against Gamal Abdel Nasser and Egypt. It seemed that the majority of the "big powers" of the world except the United States were moving toward war rather than toward peace.

An editorial in the **Savannah Morning News**, November 2, 1956 made this observation:

Aggressor nations should be quarantined. They should be isolated by economic reprisals, brought to bear through the United Nations, so that they have to answer for their actions to world opinion. Israel must be held accountable for this aggression against Egypt. Similarly, England and France are guilty of aggression. If the seizure of the Suez (canal) by Nasser constituted sufficient provocation for military retaliation, such retaliation should have been taken at the time the offense was committed. If the problem could be settled ultimately without the use of force, then the use of force before all avenues aimed at a peaceful settlement had been explored, and before all other recourse was exhausted, constitute aggression.²²

Hungary's uprising against Russian domination, which was transformed into a revolt against communism before the Soviet Army quenched it in blood during the first days of November 1956, started on July 18 when Erno Gero, Matyas Rakosi, Stalin's gauleites, called for reconciliation with Marshall Tito of Yugoslavia and a strengthening of collective leadership in Hungary on the New Soviet model and the destruction of the "cult of the individual."

The revolts which came in August, September and October grew in proportion and on October the rebels more numerous refused to lay down their arms until the Russians

²¹*The New York Times*, December 11, 1955.

²²*Savannah Morning News*, November 2, 1956.

had pulled out of Budapest. The Russians insisted that they would not leave until the rebels had laid down their arms. Clearly the lines of war or point of no retreat were clearly drawn by both countries.

On October 31, Soviet troops evacuated Budapest but dug in outside the City, and on November 1 it was reported that fresh Soviet divisions moved toward the capitol. With his back to the wall the new Hungarian Defense Minister, Major General Pal Maleter, hero of the revolution, opened negotiations with the Russians. The Russians on November 4 unleashed a massive surprise attack, roared into Budapest at dawn, seized Premier Imre Nagy and most of the government, and installed a new government. Hungary's fight for freedom was lost once more. This problem will plague the Security Council of the United Nations for many months.

Strategically, and in a sense economically, the Middle East is possibly the most important area in the world. It links three continents: Asia, Africa and Europe. The Middle East represents the shortest sea and air traffic link between Europe and Africa and Asia. The Middle East is the second largest oil producing area in the world. Only the United States produces more oil. The Middle East is far ahead in proven reserves, for it holds three-quarters of the total known reserves known to exist in the world. At present oil is playing a key role in supporting many nations of the Middle East. In 1955 estimated revenues from oil in this area were about \$1,000,000,000.²³

The Middle East has been of crucial importance to the great industrial nations of Europe, Africa and Asia for almost four hundred years. The Ottoman Turks succeeded by the middle of the sixteenth century in overrunning most of it, but their hegemony held only about 100 years. Attempts by France under Napoleon, by Russia and by Germany and her allies in World War I to use the Middle East as a springboard for drives into Southern Asia and North-east Africa failed, largely by British domination of the important sea routes.

In World War II, Germany and Italy made unsuccessful attempts to seize the Middle East. Also during World War II, the United States moved into the Mediterranean area to strengthen the West's hold on the Middle East. Britain is linked today with Iran and Iraq, Turkey and Pakistan in the Baghdad Pact.²⁴

Immediate events leading up to the Middle East crisis now debated in the United Nations had beginnings on May 14, 1948 as the British mandate in Palestine ended and the independent State of Israel was proclaimed. Immedi-

²³*The New York Times*, November 4, 1956.

²⁴*Loc. Cit.*

ately Arab armies invaded Israel. This war only ended in an armistice agreement between Israel and Egypt on February 24, 1949. On July 27, 1954 the British agreed to withdraw troops stationed in the Suez Canal area, or urged by Secretary of State Dulles of the United States and Cyprus became England's main base in the Mideast.

In November 1954, Colonel Nasser became Egyptian head of Government and by March 1955, Syria, Saudi Arabia and Egypt were joined in a military pact. On June 23, 1956, Nasser, the only candidate, was elected President of Egypt. On July 19, the United States withdrew offers to aid Egypt in building the Aswan High Dam and this gave Nasser the excuse to nationalize the Suez Canal in order to get money for needed Egyptian projects. These chain of events in which all leading nations directed, sanctioned or "unconcernedly watched," led to the present crisis and will tend to prove the most serious test to permanence of the United Nations.

Because Russia wanted to draw attention from Hungary she attacked Britain, France and Israel. In a news release from Moscow, November 10, the Russians stated:

The reckless policy dictated by narrow interests of certain circles in Britain, France and Israel, created a threatening situation which could result in serious consequences for the people, for general peace.²⁵

On the other side of the fence, non-communist diplomats chorused demands that United Nations observers be admitted into war-torn Hungary. Burma, Iraq, New Zealand, Australia and Israel added their weight to the mounting pressure for an on-the-spot check.²⁶ In the United States, Acting Secretary of State Herbert Hoover, Jr., warned the Soviet Union to keep its "volunteers" out of the Middle East or face United Nation opposition backed by United States power.²⁷

Through the smoke of each nation accusing the other and one world pointing a finger at the other the careful observer could see that the British-French debacle in Egypt had not only strained the Western alliance but had also caused these two powers to lose ground. By mid-December the Middle East burden had shifted to the United States. Prime Minister Sir Anthony Eden, the principal author of the policy of intervention in Egypt, left England for Jamaica. What he would do upon his return was debatable, but many in close quarters thought **this was** the 14th round for a man who had previously been a champion in international politics, especially where they concerned England.

²⁵*The New York Times*, November 11, 1956.

²⁶*Savannah Morning News*, November 27, 1956.

²⁷*Ibid.*, November 17, 1956.

As Santa Claus packed his basket, it was clear that the United States and the United Nations must move swiftly if any promise of peace was to come by the New Year. President Dwight D. Eisenhower in speeches from the White House and Philadelphia's Convention Hall set down his philosophy of United States foreign policy:

I am ever more deeply convinced that the U.N. is the soundest hope for peace in the world, and for this very reason, I believe its processes need to be strengthened. I speak particularly of increasing its ability to secure justice under international law. . . . There can be no peace without law.²⁸

After telling how, since the close of World War II, the United States had labored tirelessly to bring peace and stability to the Middle East, Eisenhower spoke of how direct relations of Egypt with both Israel and France kept worsening to a point at which Israel, France and Great Britain determined that, in their judgment, there could be no protection of their vital interests without resort to force; he did not feel the actions were right and made this declaration:

We cannot and we will not condone armed aggression, no matter who the attacker and no matter who the victim. We cannot, in the world any more than in our own nation, subscribe to one law for the weak, another for the strong, one law for those opposing us, another for those allied with us. There can be only one law, or there will be no peace.²⁹

History will record the worth and strength and permanence of this declaration. It was the vital direction when needed most for it tended to show the world the strong power of the West was morally right and felt that the United Nations should settle the disputes and solve, if possible, the problems of the world in favor of right against wrong.

Slight-shouldered, sandy-haired Swedish statesman and Secretary-General of United Nations since April 7, 1953, Dag Hjalmar Agne Carl Hammarskjold met the six feet, hefty Egyptian, Gamal Abdel Nasser in Egypt and a solution was found to bring the fighting to an end, clear the canal, and remove the troops of England, France and Israel out of Egypt. The complex job of providing the United Nation's Army (Police Force) with uniforms, rations, weapons and billets was turned over to Ralph J. Bunche, an expert in solving problems in the Middle East. By December 31 the rehabilitation was underway and the world began again a restful furlough.

²⁸*Time*, November 12, 1956.

²⁹*Loc. cit.*

Most important of all was the growth of the United Nations in November and December. The United Nations General Assembly opened its eleventh regular session in November by admitting three new nations: Morocco, Tunisia and the Sudan and formally welcoming the 16 other new members who were hastily admitted in the closing days of the 1955 session. In the 79 nation United Nations the balance of voting power shifted from the 20 Latin American republics, which generally voted with the United States, to the Asian-African members, which, despite the absence of Red China numbered twenty-six.³⁰ On December 18, 1956, Japan was elected as the eightieth member of the United Nation. The Japanese application, approved by the Security Council, and sponsored by fifty-one nations, was admitted by the vote of 77 to 0, with Hungary and South Africa absent.³¹ The African nation, Ghana, composed of the former Gold Coast and the British trust territory of Togoland, was voted into the world organization by 76 votes—later raised to 77 at the request of Morocco with no member states opposed and with no abstentions. Hungary and South Africa walked out of the Assembly earlier in the session. Seth Kobla Anthony, the temporary representative of Ghana, was seated in the General Assembly. Prince Wan Waithagkon, president of the General Assembly after praising the admission of Ghana and entrusting further action in the Middle East situation to Dag Hammarskjöld suspended its 1956 session which began November 12, 1956 at 8:25 p. m.,—March 8, 1957.³²

Now that the total member is 81 the Western Allies are outnumbered. By adding their votes to those of the nine Communist members, the new nations of Asia and Africa can henceforth prevent any resolutions they dislike from obtaining the necessary two-thirds majority. This writer is confident that the nations of the Middle East, except Egypt, and Israel, and possibly South Africa and the nations of Asia, except Japan, are much too busy with growing pains and domestic problems that the African-Asian Bloc will in the immediate future cause less trouble than some of the "big powers" and thereby pave the way for a more lasting international peace.

Americans do not generally look at the United Nations with regret for the United Nations is a symbol of hope, faith and peace. There will be problems, but it is felt that the presence of the United Nations will limit wars in size or at least in duration. The United Nations Organization, especially on its economic and social side, is essentially a device for facilitating consultation among member governments and for making collective recommendations to them.

³⁰*Time*, November 26, 1956.

³¹*The New York Times*, December 19, 1956.

³²*The New York Times*, March 9, 1957.

Nothing will really happen unless the national governments, through national legislative and administrative machinery, make it happen.³³ Perhaps the words of Mamoru Shigemitsu, Foreign Minister of Japan, who officially accepted the Japanese seat in the world organization will be realized in the second ten years of the United Nations youth.

We earnestly hope that under the leadership of the United Nations the great task of disarmament will be successfully consummated and mankind secured from a calamitous fate and relieved from the inhibitive psychology of fear.³⁴

³³Hans Joachim Morgenthau, *Peace, Security and the United Nations*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1946, p. 128.

³⁴*The New York Times*, December 19, 1956.

Serviceability and Suitability of Denim

by

Farnese Hughes Lumpkin

One of the greatest problems confronting the consumer in purchasing yard goods and ready-to-wear garments is shrinkage and colorfastness. Most of the garments and yard goods are preshrunk, but in spite of that some shrinkage and colorfastness are still observed. Investigations are still being done in that direction by such organizations as the American Society for Testing Materials, (ASTM) Committee D-13, and by others.

PROBLEM

Three samples of denim fabric were selected for test purposes. Each sample was approximately one yard square. The price per running yard ranged from \$0.59 to \$1.39. Tests were made on swatches or specimen of each fabric.

The three samples were selected and tested for serviceability and to determine which fabric was best suitable for such garments as casual suits, dresses, or play clothes. Each of the fabrics was tested according to the methods recommended by Commercial Standard CS59-44 to determine the following qualities: Dry breaking strength (pounds) warp and filling; wet breaking strength (pounds) warp and filling; shrinkage (percent) to dry cleaning, warp and filling; shrinkage (percent) to laundering, warp and filling; fastness of color to light; fastness of color to perspiration; fastness of color to dry cleaning; and fastness of color to laundering.

Other test methods and calculations were used to determine: Fiber content, W and F; price per square yard, width in inches, yarn structure, W and F; Thickness in inches; weight in ounces per square yard; change in strength (%); and method of coloring.

PROCEDURE

Each piece of fabric was laid out on a flat surface without pressing or tension and cut into swatches or specimen for shrinkage and breaking strength.

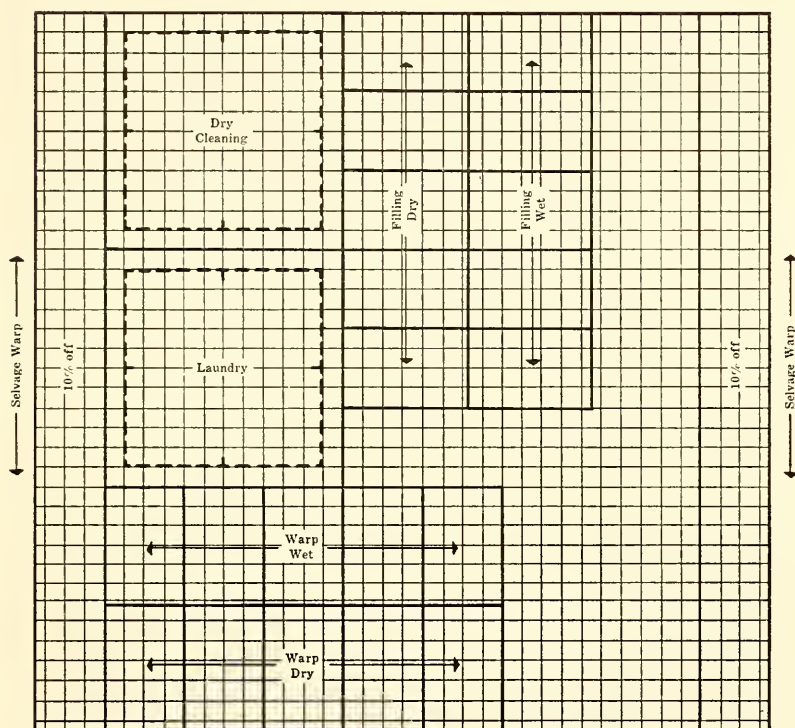
SHRINKAGE—Two specimen were cut, one for shrinkage in cleaning, dry, the other for laundering. The specimen were taken no nearer the selvage than one-tenth the width of the fabric. Each measured at least 12 by 12 inches. A 10-inch square whose sides were placed parallel with the warp and filling of the specimen was outlined on it with the aid of a rigid templet. The corners and mid-points

of each side of the square were marked with a fine thread sewed into the fabric. Other possible markings could have been indelible ink applied with a fine pen or by 1/16-inch holes punched in the fabric.

Cleaning, dry—The apparatus was filled approximately one-third with Stoddard Solvent to which was added 270 ml. of dry-cleaning soap. Time of first operation was 25 minutes, second operation was 5 minutes.

DIAGRAM FOR MARKING WOVEN FABRIC TO BE CUT INTO SWATCHES

Scale: 1 block = 1 inch



Laundering—The washing was carried out in a reversing wash wheel of the cylindrical type. The machine had a 20 or 24-inch wheel that took a load of about 3 pounds of dry wash. The soap solution was that of a good grade of laundry soap prepared into a stock solution.

The hand pressing method was used for both specimen.

BREAKING STRENGTH—Twenty specimen, each 4 inches wide and not less than 6 1/4 inches long were cut for this test. Ten of those specimen were cut with their long

sides parallel to the warp yarns (for warp breaking strength) and 10 specimen were cut with their long sides parallel to the filling yarns (for filling breaking strength) in such a manner that there were five pairs of specimen in each direction; each pair of which contained the same warp or filling yarns but no two pairs of which contained the same yarns (warp or filling). No specimen was taken nearer the selvage than one-tenth the width of the material.

Five specimen in each set, of which no two specimen contained the same yarns (warp or filling), were used for determining the breaking strength of the material under standard atmospheric conditions and the remaining specimen for determining the breaking strength of the material when wet.

A motor-driven pendulum machine was used. It was of such a capacity that when the specimen broke, the angle between the pendulum and the vertical was between 9° and 45°. The jaws through which the load was applied moved at a uniform rate of 12½ inches per minute.

The method used to determine the breaking strength of the specimen was the Grab Method.

COLORFASTNESS TO LIGHT—Five specimen were cut, each measured about 2½ by 3 inches, the longer dimension running in the direction of the warp, lengthwise of yarns. Each specimen included all of the colors in the design. A piece of the original specimen or specimen number 1 was saved for comparison with the tested swatches. Number 2 was exposed 10 hours, number 3—20 hours, number 4—30 hours and number 5—40 hours.

FASTNESS OF COLOR TO LIGHT

<i>Specimen Number</i>	<i>Hours of Exposure</i>	<i>Rating</i>
<i>Original</i>	<i>Not Exposed</i>	
2	10	Fair
3	20	Poor
4	30	Poor
5	40	Poor

Average—Poor

COLORFASTNESS TO PERSPIRATION—Two specimen of the fabric, approximately 2 by 4 inches, were cut so they could be rolled lengthwise and inserted in the glass tube—one for the acid test and one for the alkaline test.

One piece of composite test cloth of the same dimension as the specimen was used for each specimen tested.

Two solutions were used as follows:

ACID SOLUTION

- 10 g of sodium chloride
- 1 g of lactic acid, USP 85 percent
- 1 g of disodium orthophosphate anhydrous
- 1 liter was made up with distilled water

ALKALINE SOLUTION

- 10 g of sodium chloride
- 4 g of ammonium carbonate, USP
- 1 g of disodium orthophosphate anhydrous
- 1 liter was made up with distilled water

PRESENT STUDY

(Testing)

The different fabrics were tested according to: Textiles—Testing and Reporting (Fourth Edition) Commercial Standard CS59-44, U.S. Department of Commerce, National Bureau of Standards.

The three fabrics were of the same fiber content—cotton. Method of coloring—yarn dyed. Fabric number 1 had a special finish—flock print design. Fabric number 2 was a four color stripe—colors woven in by wrap yarns. Fabric number 3 was solid color. Fabric number 1 was of plain weave. Fabrics number 2 and 3 were of twill weave.

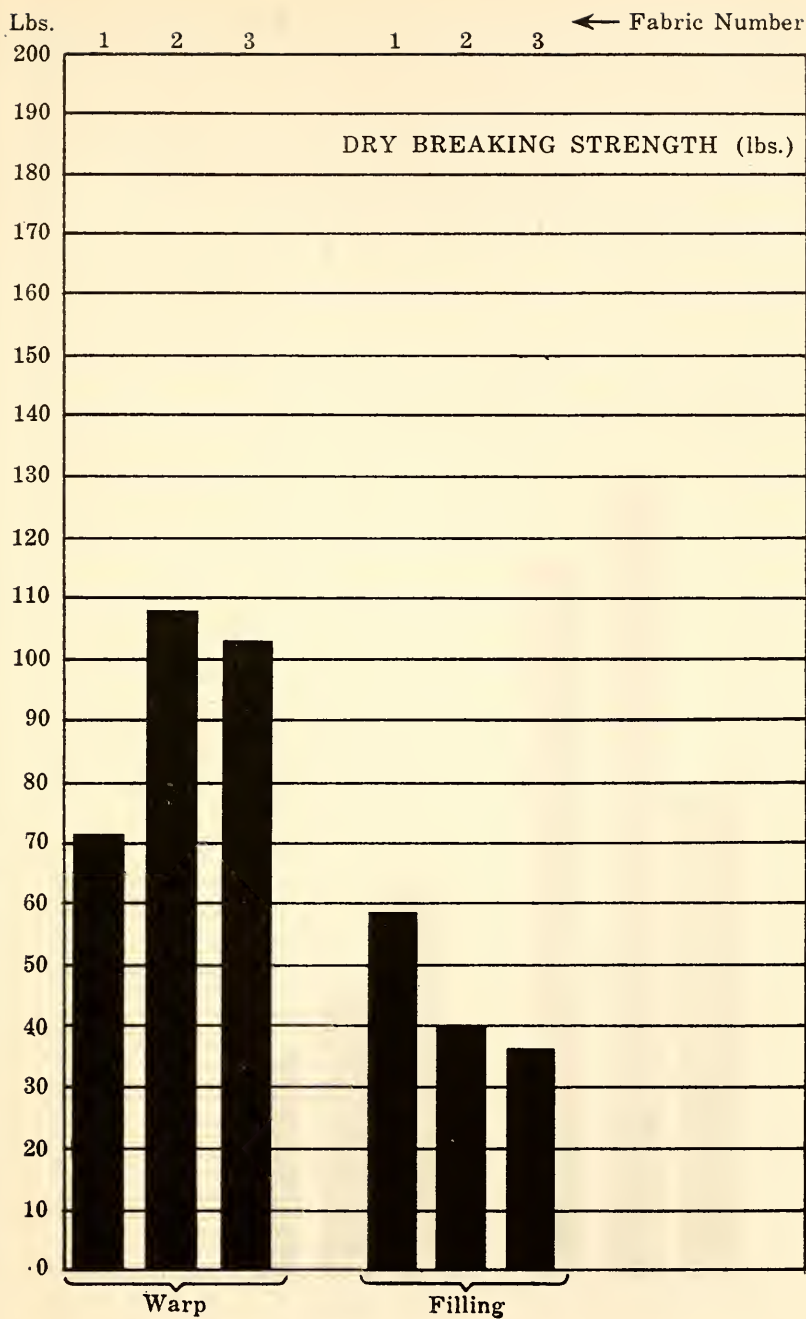
FABRIC NUMBER ONE—The breaking strength (wet and dry) of the warp yarns was less than that found in fabric two and three. The percent elongation (dry) for the warp and filling yarns were higher. The warp and filling yarns stretched in the dry cleaning process and shrunk in laundering. Color fastness to light was poor, laundering—fair, dry cleaning—good, perspiration—(acid) good, perspiration—(alkaline) fair.

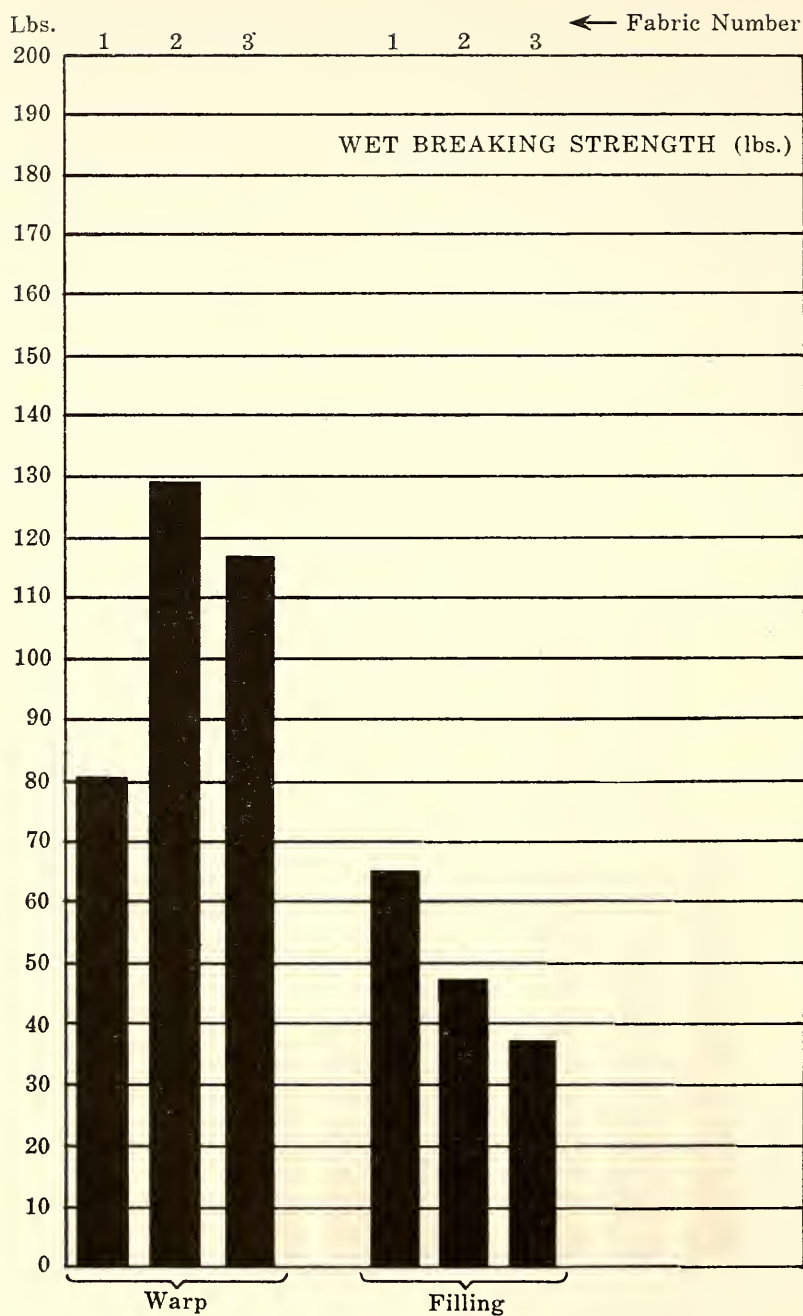
FABRIC NUMBER TWO—The breaking strength (wet and dry) of the warp yarns were higher in fabric number one and three. The percent elongation (wet) in the warp was higher than in fabrics one and three. The filling yarns in dry cleaning shrunk 1%. In the laundry process the filling yarns shrunk 2%. Color fastness to light was poor. A slight amount of bleeding was observed on the alkaline test to perspiration. Acid test—good.

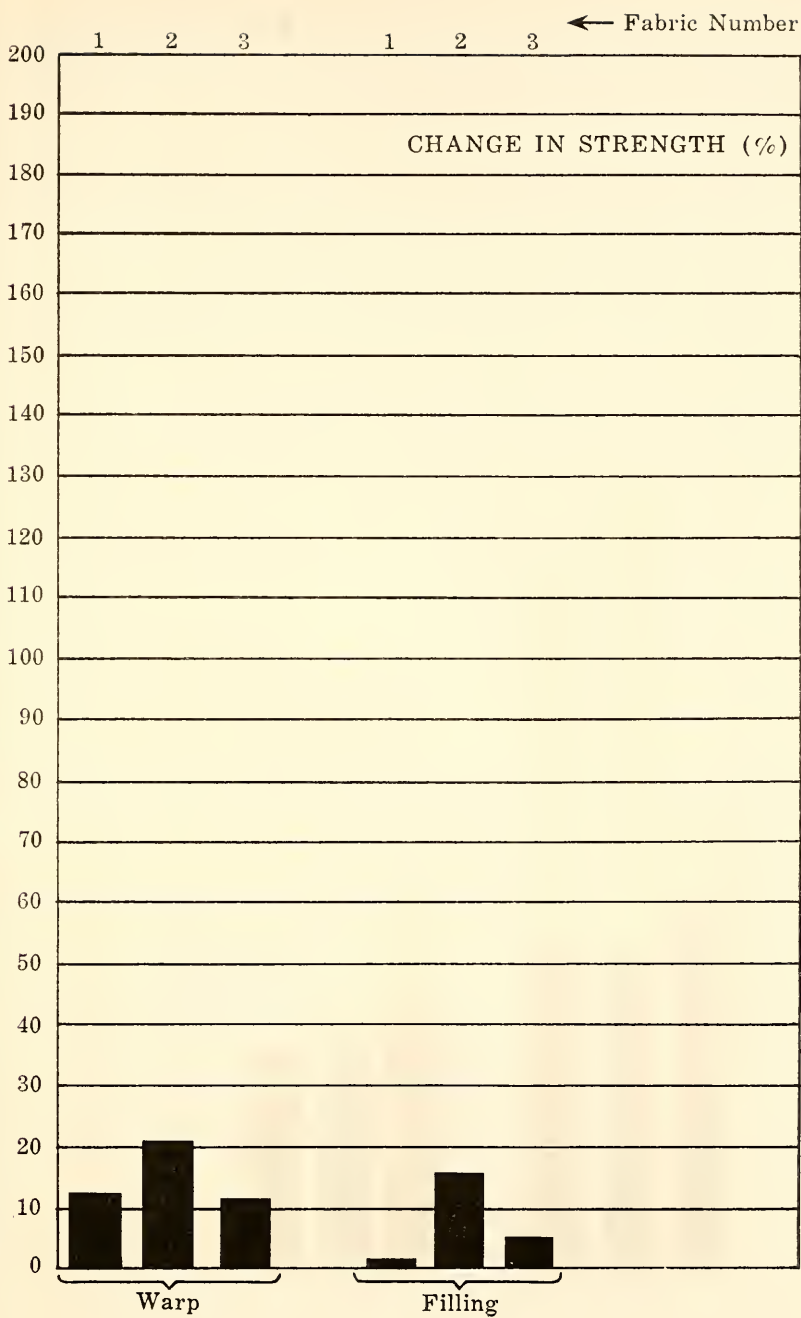
FABRIC NUMBER THREE—The breaking strength (wet and dry) of the filling yarns was less than that found in fabric one and two. The warp and filling yarns had a high percent shrinkage to laundry. Both warp and filling yarns stretched in the dry cleaning process. Perspiration (acid and alkaline) good.

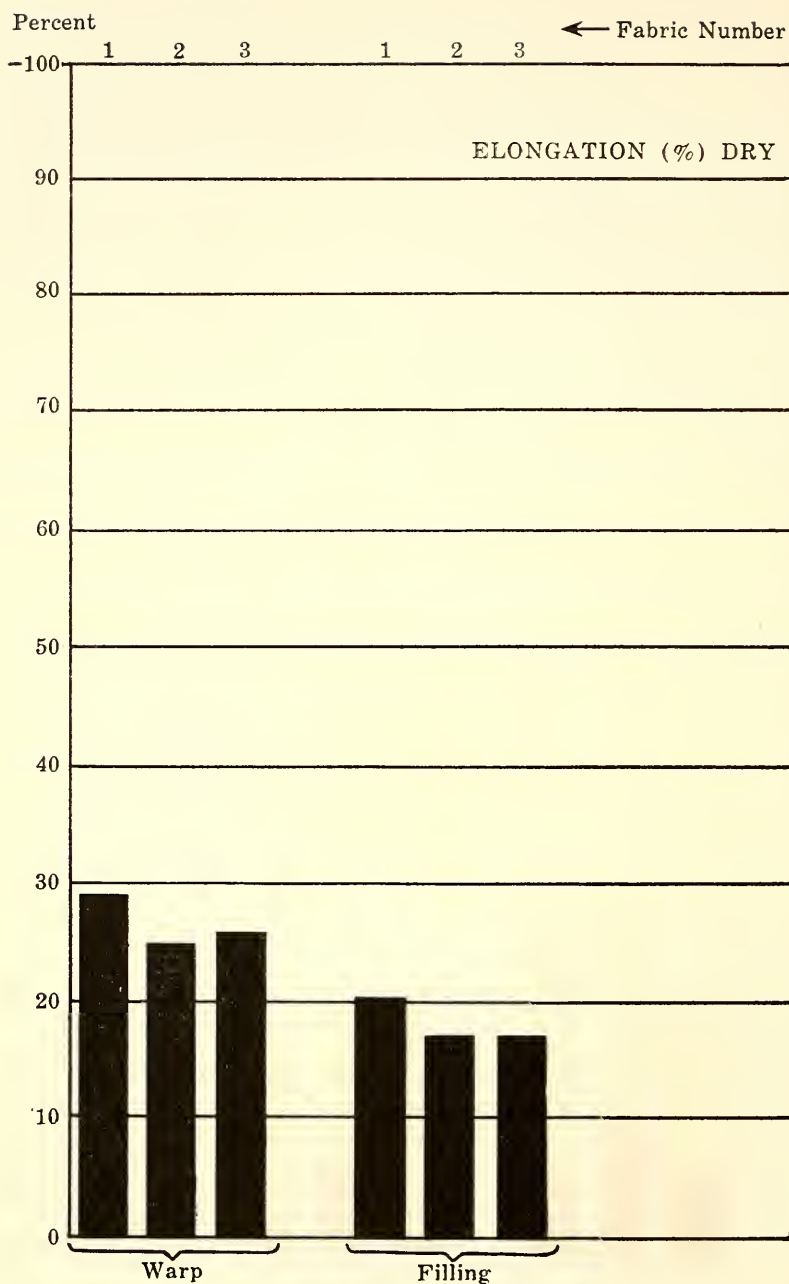
Fabric Number	1	2	3
Fabric	Denim	Denim	Denim
Price per running yard	\$ 1.39	\$ 0.59	\$ 0.59
Price per square yard	\$ 1.35	\$ 0.5883	\$ 0.57
Fiber Content W	Cotton	Cotton	Cotton
Fiber Content F	Cotton	Cotton	Cotton
Width in inches	37.44"	36.1"	37"
Yarn structure W	Simple Single	Simple Single	Simple Single
Yarn structure F	Simple Single	Simple Single	Simple Single
Fabric structure	Plain	Twill	Twill
Yarn count per inch W	68.4	47 1/5	62
Yarn count per inch F	56.8	50	44.1
Thickness in inches	.0166	.019	.020
Weight in oz. per sq. yd.	5.78	6.24	6.3
Dry breaking strength (lbs.) W	71	107.6	103.5
Dry breaking strength (lbs.) F	58.6	40.0	36
Wet breaking strength (lbs.) W	80.2	129.7	116.6
Wet breaking strength (lbs.) F	65.2	46.4	37.7

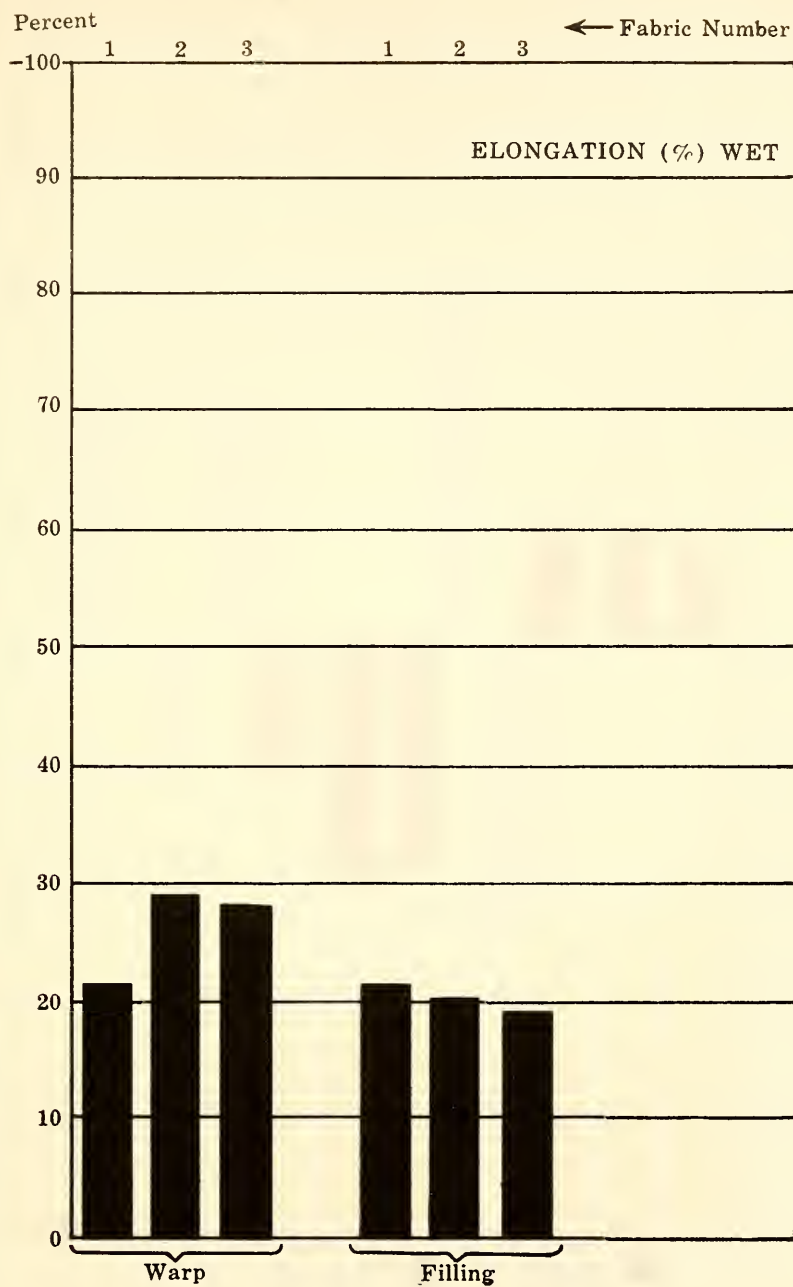
Fabric Number	1		2		3	
Change in strength (%) W	12.9		20.5		12.6	
Change in strength (%) F	1.1		1.6		4.7	
Elongation (%) dry W	29		25		25.6	
Elongation (%) dry F	20.3		17		17	
Elongation (%) wet W	22.4		28.6		26.5	
Elongation (%) wet F	23.5		20.6		19.5	
	Dry Cleaning	Laundry	Dry Cleaning	Laundry	Dry Cleaning	Laundry
Shrinkage (%) W	+ .1	—1.9	+1	—2	+1	—1.2
Shrinkage (%) F	+ .2	—1.4	—1	+ .3	+ .2	+ 2.5
Shrinkage (in. per yd.) W	+ .036	— .684	+ .36	— .72	+ .36	— .43
Shrinkage (in. per yd.) F	+ .072	— .504	+ .36	— .108	+ .072	— .9
Method of coloring	Yarn Dyed		Yarn Dyed		Yarn Dyed	
Fastness of color to light	Poor		Poor		Good	
to laundering	Fair		Good		Good	
to dry cleaning	Good		Good		Good	
Special finishes	Flock Print		None		None	
Perspiration (Acid test)	Good		Good		Good	
Perspiration (Alkaline test)	Fair		Fair		Good	

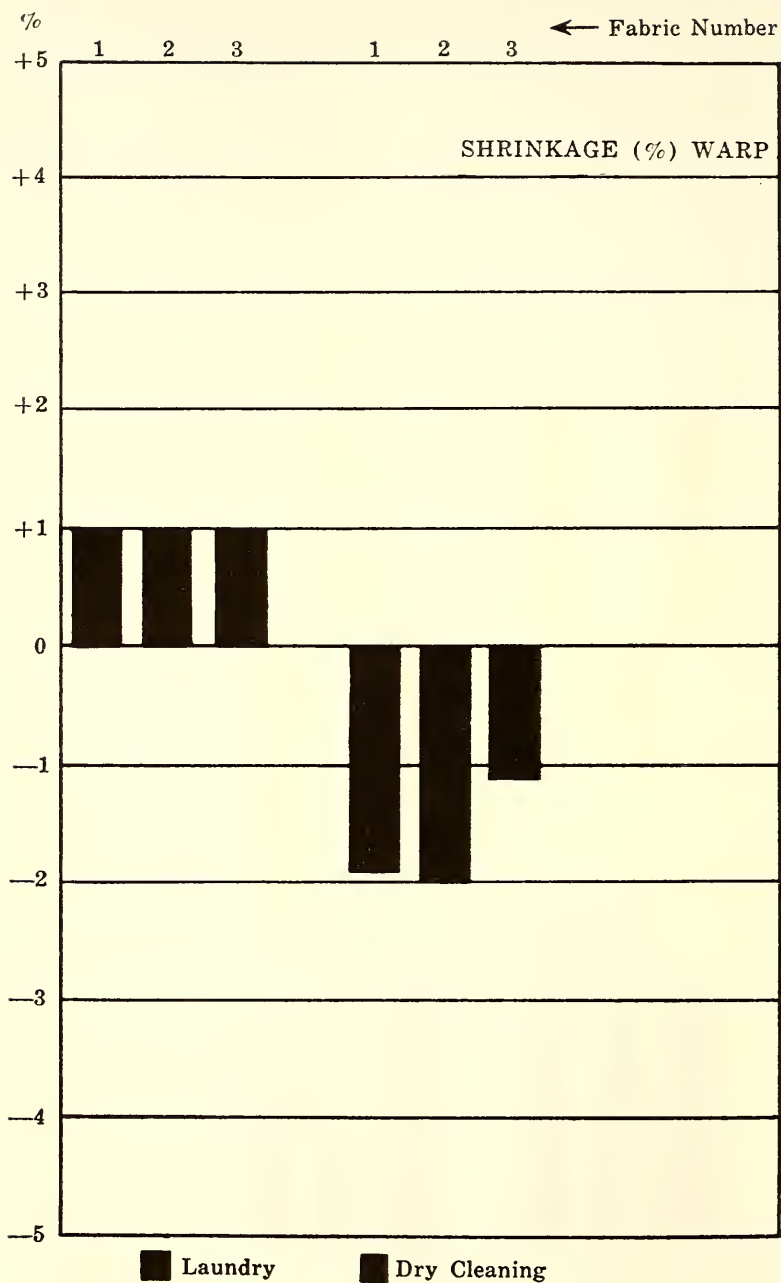


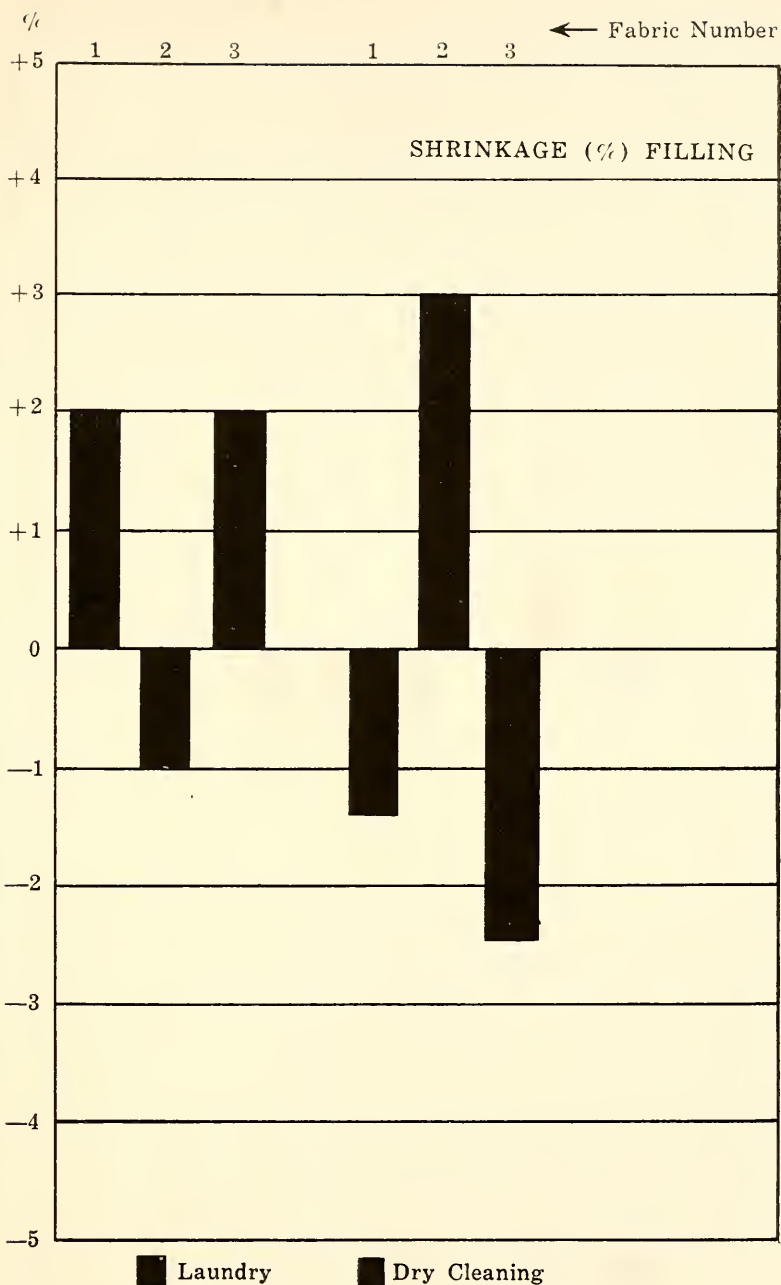


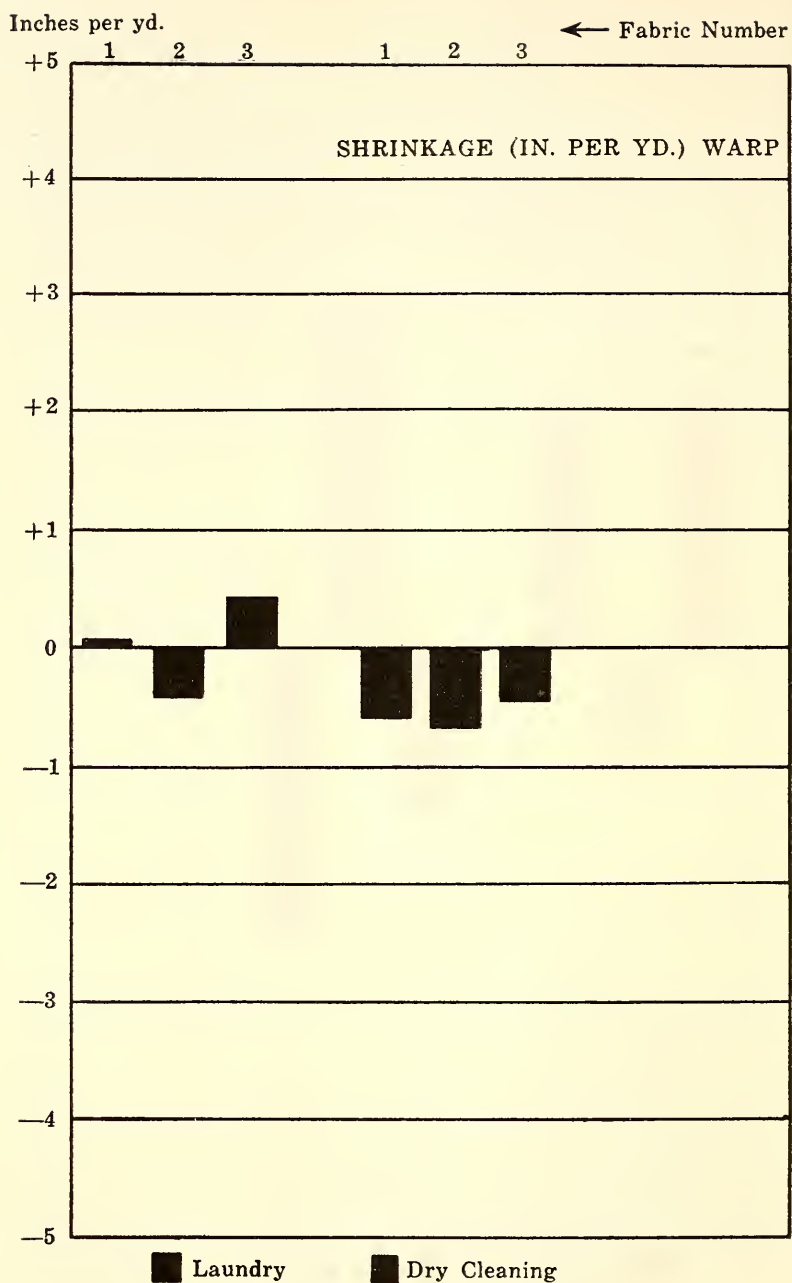


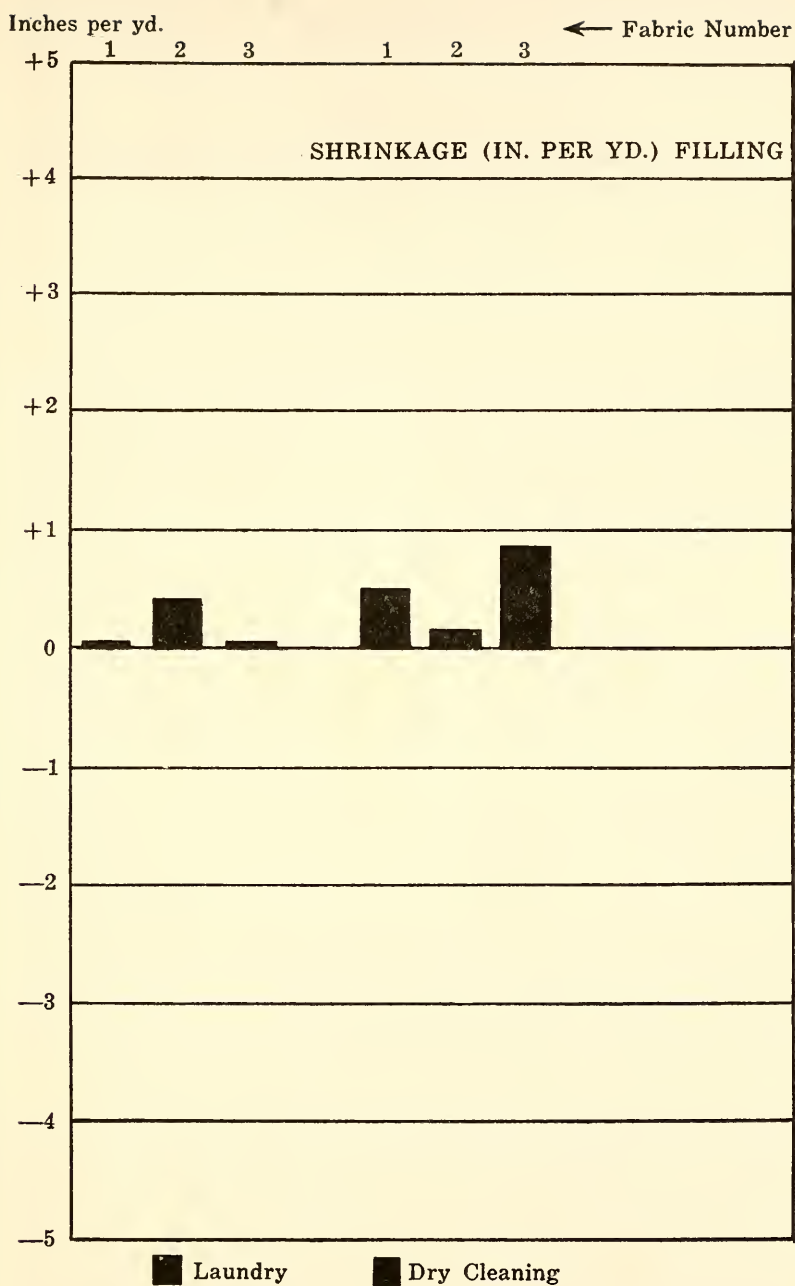












SUMMARY

Laundering caused the three cotton denim fabrics to shrink from 1.2% to 2.5%. Dry cleaning caused the fabrics to stretch .1% to 1%. Fabric number 3 was colorfast to light, laundry, dry cleaning, and perspiration (acid and alkaline).

CONCLUSION

Fabric number 3 was found to be more suitable for a dress, suit or play-clothes than fabrics 1 and 2.

The Status of Audio-Visual Education In Florida's Accredited Senior Negro High Schools and Accredited Vocational High Schools *

By W. H. M. Bowens

Nature of the Survey

Eighty-eight checklist-type questionnaires were mailed to the 88 Negro accredited senior high schools and vocational high schools listed in the October 1956, **Florida Educational Directory**, published by the Florida State Department of Education. Forty or 45.5 percent of the questionnaires were returned. The questionnaires were mailed in April 1956. By the end of May 1957, 39 returns had been received. An additional questionnaire was received in early June 1957.

The purpose of this survey was to determine the status of Audio-Visual Education in the 88 schools surveyed with a view toward helping Negro teacher-training institutions in the area involved to set up more effective audio-visual training programs.

Florida has 67 counties; returns were received from 27 or 40.3 percent of the State's counties. Of these, four or ten percent of the 40 questionnaires returned came from the most populous county in the state—Dade—of which Miami is the County Seat.

Three or 7.5 per cent of the 40 returns came from Escambia county of which Pensacola is the county seat and two returns each were received from Broward, Lake, Leon, Marion, Orange, Polk and Volusia counties. Eighteen counties returned one questionnaire each.

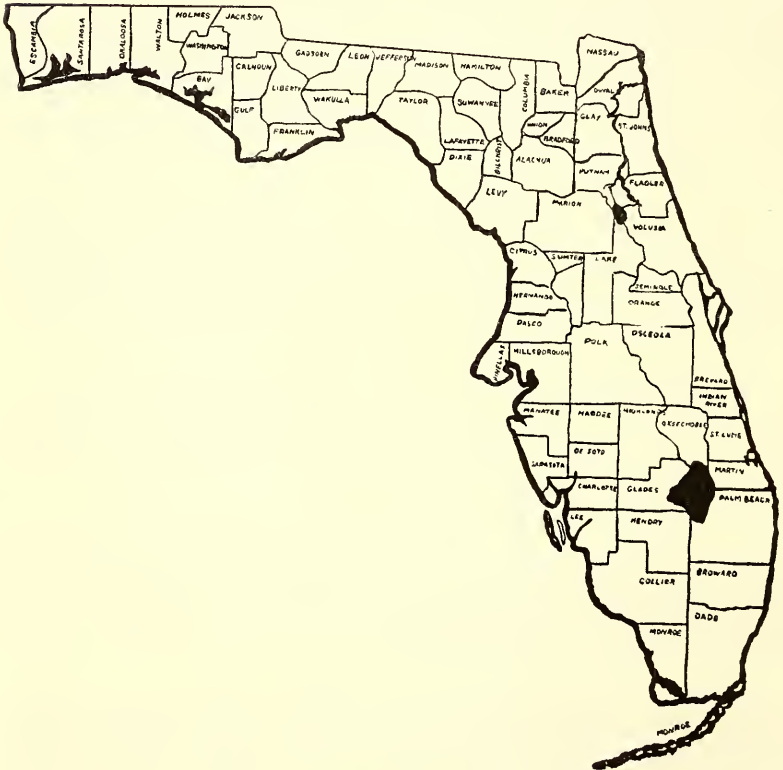
As the map on page two shows, the returns were well-distributed over the entire state, with the largest number coming from the northern part of the state. One return was received from the southernmost county in the state—Monroe.

*This article is the third in a series on the status of Audio-Visual Education in Georgia and neighboring states. The first two articles dealt with the status of A-V Education in Georgia and South Carolina accredited high schools respectively.

The information sought through the questionnaire involved the following areas:

1. Organization of the Audio-Visual Program
2. Equipment owned
3. Materials produced by the individual school for classroom use.
4. Methods of procuring audio-visual materials
5. Functions of the audio-visual program
6. Budgets and methods of obtaining them
7. Promotional and developmental programs

OUTLINE MAP OF FLORIDA
SHOWING POSITIONS OF COUNTIES



Organization

According to Weaver and Bollinger:

If a visual program is to function efficiently, it must be properly organized and managed regardless of the size . . . The problems of organization and admin-

istration of a visual aids program are very much the same whether they are those of a single school or a city system. These problems differ only in magnitude, not in kind.¹

In short, if an audio-visual program is to be effective, it must be well organized and administered, with someone permanently responsible for these functions. Florida schools are apparently aware of this fact, because, according to the data, 27 or 67.5 per cent of the 40 responding schools have audio-visual directors and coordinators. The same number have audio-visual committees. Furthermore, only 6 or 15 per cent of the 40 responding schools had no director or no committee. In other words 34 or 85 per cent of the schools responding had directors or committees or both. (See Table I below).

TABLE I—SCHOOLS HAVING AUDIO-VISUAL DIRECTORS AND COMMITTEES

	Yes		No		NA*	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
1. Do you have an Audio-Visual Director?	27	67.5	13	32.5	0	0
2. Has Your Director had special training?	18	45.0	18	45.0	4	10.0
3. Do you have an A-V Committee?	27	67.5	13	32.5	0	0
4. Are all Departments or Subject-Matter Areas represented on your committee?	19	47.5	16	40.0	5	12.5

*NA—No Answer

Another aspect of organization is the place of utilization of materials and equipment by teachers and others. There are several possibilities here. The most ideal is to have every classroom equipped for using audio-visual materials and equipment. Other possibilities are to have one classroom adequately equipped in each building where there are several buildings on a campus; to have one audio-visual room on each floor in case of multi-storied buildings or to have one central room used by the entire school. The latter arrangement is the least desirable due to unavoidable scheduling problems as well as the inconvenience of moving from the classroom to a central center.

¹Gilbert G. Weaver and Elroy W. Bollinger, *Visual Aids: Their Construction and Use*, (New York, publisher 1949) pp. 288-289.

Only nine or 22.5 per cent of the responding schools stated that every room in their respective schools was equipped for using motion pictures, slides, filmstrips and other projected audio-visual materials. On the other hand more than half (23 or 57.5%) of the responding schools stated that they had one central audio-visual room which was used by the entire school. According to the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction of the National Education Association, in one of their special booklets on various phases of audio-visual education, central audio-visual "rooms are a hindrance to the school program and have been condemned by modern educators."² In short this is not a desirable practice.

Twenty-five or 62.5 per cent of the responding schools stated that they had several buildings on their campuses, however, only 9 or 22.5 per cent (as previously stated) indicated that every room in their respective schools was audio-visually equipped.

Audio-visual specialists unanimously agree that the best place to use audio-visual materials and equipment is in the classroom. They also agree rather emphatically that school auditoriums should not be used for audio-visual teaching, because students tend to feel that they are being entertained rather than educated in an auditorium. According to the Audio-Visual Education Association of California, auditoriums are acceptable for special occasions, such as Washington's Birthday or Fire Prevention Week, but should not be used for general classroom teaching.³ How do the 40 responding schools stand on the matter of the use of auditoriums for teaching purposes? Far too many use it for teaching—25 or 62.5 per cent. Eight of the 40 responding schools or 20 per cent use the auditorium as an audio-visual center.

Housing is another phase of audio-visual organization and administration. Two points of view pervade present thinking on this matter. One is that audio-visual materials and equipment should be housed in the school library and checked out and used the same as books, magazines and other traditional library equipment. In short, they should be a part of the library, administered by the library staff. The other is that audio-visual materials should be housed and administered independently.

Florida schools apparently believe in the library housing school of thought because 27 or 67.5 per cent of the responding schools stated that their AV Centers were housed in the library. Two additional schools stated that

²*Planning Schools for Use of Audio-Visual Materials: No. 3, AV Instructional Materials Center* (Department of A-V Instruction of the NEA, Washington, D. C. 1954.) p. 5.

³*Setting Up Your Audio-Visual Education Program* (AV Education Association of California) (Stanford University Press) 1949, pp. 16-17.

their centers were housed in the library office annex and adjacent to the library. Only two schools or 5 per cent reported that their centers were housed in the principal's office (generally, considered undesirable) while one each stated that their centers were housed in (1) the record room, (2) a special room, (3) the related study classroom, (4) the social science classroom, (5) the supervisor's office, and (6) the county materials center. (See Table II below). Three schools or 7.5 per cent did not answer this question.

TABLE II—HOUSING OF THE AUDIO-VISUAL CENTER IN
40 FLORIDA ACCREDITED NEGRO HIGH SCHOOLS

	No.	Percent
1. Library	27	67.5
2. No Answer	3	7.5
3. Principal's Office	2	5.0
4. Library Office Annex	1	2.5
5. Adjacent to Library	1	2.5
6. Record Room	1	2.5
7. Special Room	1	2.5
8. Related Study Classroom	1	2.5
9. Social Science Classroom	1	2.5
10. Supervisor's Office	1	2.5
11. County Materials Center	1	2.5
Totals	40	100.0

Equipment

The number of students in an individual school is very important in determining the equipment needs of that school, as well as the type of program and the equipment preferences of individual teachers. According to Hartsell and Norford, the Audio-Visual Commission on Public Information recommends the following basic minimum equipment:

1. 16mm. Sound Projectors—1 per 300 students or major fraction thereof; at least one for each building.
2. Filmstrip and 2" x 2" projector—1 per 200 students or a major fraction thereof; at least one per building.
3. Opaque Projector—1 per building (one must be equipped to handle 3¼" x 4" slides).
4. Record Players (3 speed)—1 per first school-year class; 1 per five other classrooms; at least two per building.
5. Tape Recorders—1 per 300 students or major fraction; at least one per building.
6. AM-FM Radio and TV All-Channel Receivers—(where appropriate program materials are avail-

able) 1 radio per five classrooms; at least one TV set per building.

7. Overhead Projector (7" x 7" or larger)—1 per building.
8. Screens (square 60" x 60" or larger)—1 per each two classrooms.⁴

The survey showed that the 40 responding schools owned more record players—132 or 3.3 players per school—than any other type of equipment. Thirty-nine or 97.5 per cent of the 40 schools owned these 132 record players. Thirty-eight or 95 per cent of the schools owned 78 filmstrip projectors; 39 or 97.5 per cent owned 52 motion picture projectors; 33 or 82.5 per cent owned 49 tape recorders; 32 or 80 per cent owned 64 microphones and 28 or 70 per cent owned 35 public address systems. Next in order of number of pieces of equipment owned were combination filmstrip and slide projectors; AM-FM radio sets, opaque projectors, central sound systems, disc recorders, lantern slide projectors, motion-picture cameras, 2" x 2" slide projectors, still picture cameras, overhead projectors, stereo viewers, all-channel TV, enlargers and darkroom equipment, wire recorders and microprojectors (See Table III below).

TABLE III—EQUIPMENT OWNED BY 40 FLORIDA ACCREDITED NEGRO HIGH SCHOOLS

	Total No.	Average Per School	Schools Owning	
			No.	Percentage
1. Record Players	132	3.3	39	97.5
2. Filmstrip Projectors	78	1.9	38	95.0
3. Microphones	64	1.6	32	80.0
4. 16mm SMP Projectors	52	1.3	39	97.5
5. Tape Recorders	49	1.2	33	82.5
6. PA Systems	35	.90	28	70.0
7. Combination Filmstrips and 2" x 2" Slide Projectors	28	.70	19	47.5
8. AM-FM Radio Sets	22	.55	15	37.5
9. Central Sound System	16	.40	15	37.5
10. Opaque Projectors	17	.43	14	35.0
11. Disc Recorders	14	.35	7	17.5
12. Lantern Slide Projectors 3¼" x 4"	8	.20	6	15.0
13. MP Cameras	6	.15	6	15.0
14. 2" x 2" Slide Projectors	3	.08	3	7.5
15. Still Picture Cameras	3	.08	3	7.5
16. Stereo Viewers	2	.05	2	5.0
17. Overhead Projectors	2	.05	1	2.5
18. All-Channel TV	1	.03	1	2.5
19. Enlarger and Darkroom Equipment	1	.03	1	2.5
20. Wire Recorders	1	.03	1	2.5
21. Microprojectors	1	.03	1	2.5

⁴Horace C. Hartsell and Charles A. Norford, "Selecting Equipment or Steve's Problem," *Audio-Visual Instruction*, Nov., 1956, p. 174.

The 40 schools surveyed had most of AVCPI's recommended basic equipment, with a few exceptions. No attempt was made in this survey to determine the adequacy or inadequacy of equipment owned by the responding schools.

Many schools with limited budgets have developed their audio-visual programs through the use of certain teacher-produced materials such as posters, charts, flannelboards, still pictures and bulletin boards. Furthermore, audio-visual specialists generally agree that teachers should be able to produce some of these simpler types of materials.

Of the materials produced by teachers in the 40 responding schools, posters headed the list with 34 or 85 per cent indicating that they produced posters for teaching purposes. Sixteen or 40 per cent of the schools produce motion pictures of athletic contests and 9 or 22.5 per cent produce motion pictures for teaching purposes. Eleven or 27.5 per cent produce filmstrips and still pictures for teaching purposes while 12 or 30 per cent produce photographic slides and 7 or 17.5 per cent produce handmade lantern slides. Only 9 or 22.5 per cent of the responding schools indicated that they produce materials other than those aforementioned. Among other materials produced for teaching purposes, were maps, globes, bulletin boards, historical and natural displays, disc recordings, tape recordings, graphs, charts, collections of local objects and atlases.

The data indicate that some of these schools should explore the possibility of producing more of the less expensive audio-visual materials such as feltboards, photographic slides, filmstrips, lantern slides, still pictures, exhibits of local objects and other such inexpensive materials.

Procurement of Materials

Audio-visual materials may be procured by several methods—free loan, rental, purchase, donations and local production. The 40 responding schools were asked to indicate which method or methods they employed.

Of the 40 responding schools, 32 or 80 per cent get some materials on a free loan basis from industries, government agencies and other free loan sources. Eleven or 27.5 per cent procure some materials from the Florida State University Audio-Visual Center. Eight or 20 per cent borrow films from county audio-visual libraries, and the same number indicated that they buy some film and some filmstrips. One-hundred per cent of the responding schools indicated that they procure materials from at least one or more sources. Procurement, according to the survey, did not seem to constitute a major problem for the responding schools.

Functions of the Audio-Visual Center

According to Margaret W. Divizia:

The audio-visual movement in American education has quickened and grown strong because its motivating force is service—service to people of all ages, and teachers of all subjects. Its equipment and materials are designed for one purpose, to serve the needs of education. Audio-visual departments exist to serve the schools which create them.⁵

Service, then, is the primary and general function of any audio-visual center or department. This service may take varied and infinite forms. With this in mind, the 40 responding schools were asked to indicate the types of services rendered by their respective audio-visual centers or departments.

Table IV (below) indicates that 35 or 87.5 per cent of the responding schools have as their primary function the servicing of high school classes using visual aids, and assisting high school teachers in the selection of audio-visual materials. Thirty or 75 per cent assume responsibility for the selection and maintenance of all audio-visual equipment while 26 schools or 65 per cent conduct promotional programs in the most effective methods of using audio-visual materials in high schools. Nineteen or 47.5 per cent of the responding schools stated that their A-V Center or departments assist teachers in producing A-V materials and 10 or 25 per cent provide photographic services for all high school needs.

TABLE IV—FUNCTIONS OF THE AUDIO-VISUAL PROGRAM
IN 40* FLORIDA NEGRO ACCREDITED HIGH SCHOOLS

	Yes	No	NA**
1. To serve high school classes using visual aids	35	1	3
2. To assist high school teachers in the selection of Audio-Visual materials	33	2	4
3. To conduct a promotional program in the most effective methods of using A-V materials in high school classrooms	26	5	8
4. To provide photographic service for all high school needs	10	13	16
5. To assume responsibility for selection and maintenance of all audio-visual equipment	30	1	8
6. To assist teachers in the production of A-V materials	19	5	15
7. Others		1	36
1. To service elementary classes	1	0	0
2. To secure A-V materials for school use	1	0	0

*Note: one school had no A-V Center.

**No answer.

⁵Margaret W. Divizia, "Administration of an Audio-Visual Center," quoted in Charles F. Schuller, ed., *The School Administrator and His Audio-Visual Program*, (Washington, D. C., 1949) p. 34.

Budgets

Before an audio-visual program can be a going concern, it must have a budget—the sine qua non of an effective, developing program.

The Audio-Visual Commission on Public Information, an audio-visual public relations group organized in 1956, has the following to say on budgets for individual school programs:

The commission believed that the minimum cost of the local school program should be (one per cent of the school's instructional budget; used to provide all materials of instruction except textbooks; and exclusive of all salaries.)

L. C. Larson, director for the Audio-Visual Center at Indiana University and U. S. delegate to the Paris UNESCO, stated that the annual pupil cost for instruction would run between \$250 and \$600 in the U. S. 'That means that with an average pupil cost of \$300 annually, educators cooperating for the highest efficient use of the school dollar can employ the most modern teaching tools for only \$3 per pupil,' Larson explained.⁶

How did the 40 responding schools rate with reference to the proposed per pupil expenditure of AVCPI? As Table VI shows per pupil expenditures in 21 of the 40 schools (only 21 gave budget figures) ranged from a minimum of 10 cents to a maximum of \$1.50. The median expenditure was .52 per pupil and the average per pupil expenditure was 65.9 cents per pupil; both figures are far below the recommended \$3 average of AVCPI.

Audio-visual budgets may be determined on a per teacher basis, a per pupil basis, a per pupil in average daily attendance basis, a per building basis, a fixed per cent of the total budget basis and a per school basis within a given school system. As Table VI shows, of the 21 schools giving a budget figure, 14 or 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent use a per pupil basis for determining their audio-visual budgets. The per pupil basis, incidentally, is one of the most widely used methods of computing audio-visual budgets.

Despite the fact that only 21 or 52.5 per cent of the responding schools listed definite budget figures, 36 or 90 per cent indicated that they received monies for audio-visual use. (See Table V). Only 4 schools or 10 per cent gave no answer to the budget question.

⁶Charles F. Schuller, "The Audio-Visual Commission on Public Information," *Educational Screen and Audio-Visual Guide*, July 1957, p. 367.

TABLE V—SOURCES OF AUDIO-VISUAL EXPENDITURES IN
40 FLORIDA ACCREDITED NEGRO HIGH SCHOOLS

	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
County Board of Education	23	57.5
County and State	6	15.0
No Answer	4	10.0
Board of Public Instruction	2	5.0
State	2	5.0
General Funds	1	2.5
Instructional Materials Budget	1	2.5
County and State and Finances Raised by School	1	2.5
Total	40	100.0

TABLE VI—BUDGETS OF AUDIO-VISUAL PROGRAMS IN 21
FLORIDA ACCREDITED NEGRO HIGH SCHOOLS, 1956-57

	<i>Total Budget</i>	<i>Enrollment</i>	<i>Per Pupil Expenditures*</i>	<i>Bases for Determining Budget</i>
1.	\$ 259.50	173	\$1.50	Per Pupil
2.	1,723.45	1175	1.47	Per Pupil
3.	400.00	300	1.33	25% of Instructional Budget
4.	684.00	684	1.00	Per Pupil
5.	270.00	274	.99	Per Teacher
6.	600.00	655	.92	Need
7.	450.00	601	.75	Per Pupil
8.	250.00	335	.75	Per Pupil
9.	375.00	646	.58	Per Pupil
10.	894.00	1694	.53	County-Wide Basis
11.	384.00	735	.52	Per Pupil
12.	164.00	328	.50	Per Pupil
13.	570.50	1141	.50	Per Pupil
14.	189.00	378	.50	Per Pupil
15.	350.00	735	.48	Per Pupil
16.	100.00	260	.39	Per Pupil
17.	500.00	1500	.33	Per Pupil
18.	475.00	1935	.25	No Answer
19.	150.00	657	.23	No Answer
20.	75.00	355	.21	Per Pupil
21.	96.00**	935	.10	Size of the School
plus repairs				

*Figures to the nearest cent.

**The amount for repairs was not given.

Promotional and Developmental Programs

It is now a well-established and widely accepted fact that audio-visual materials make for a more effective learning situation. Despite this fact, however, audio-visual programs in many schools are hampered because many teachers do not know how to use the equipment and materials provided by such programs, and many school administrators, though they are aware of the value of such programs, have not been thoroughly sold on them. In short, audio-visual programs, like all good products, must be sold to teachers,

administrators, parents and other interested groups. This is the function of the promotional programs.

A visual handbook prepared by the Audio-Visual Education Association of California which is composed of leaders in audio-visual education at all levels suggests the following check-list for promoting the use of audio-visual materials and equipment among in-service teachers, who, incidentally are the chief users of audio-visual equipment and materials in the individual schools:

1. Give demonstrations on the use of materials and equipment before teacher groups, or at faculty meetings.
2. Supervise use within the classroom.
3. Permit teachers to observe other teachers who use audio-visual materials well in your school and elsewhere.
4. Keep teachers informed concerning new materials, equipment, and new ways of use, and give them teacher's guides and manuals.
5. Preview materials in groups together and discuss their worth and possible use.
6. Encourage the production of slides, photographs and other simple aids.
7. Train teachers to use equipment with confidence.
8. Encourage teachers to take summer session classes and attend workshops and institutes in audio-visual education.
9. Encourage teachers to join professional organizations.
10. Help individual teachers by telling them about the materials they can use, and suggest ways of using them.
11. Bring in outside experts who can inform and stimulate teacher interest.⁷

The 40 responding schools were asked to indicate methods used by them to promote effective methods of utilizing audio-visual materials among their teachers. They were also asked to comment on plans for future development of their audio-visual programs.

Twelve or 30 per cent of the 40 schools gave no answer to the query concerning promotion while 21 or 52.5 per cent gave no answer to the query concerning development of their programs. In addition, six schools or 15 per cent answered the question concerning development

⁷*Setting Up Your Audio-Visual Education Program*, (Audio-Visual Education Association of California), Stanford University Press, 1949, p. 25.

by saying they hoped to develop programs but gave no definite plans for doing so.

Eight or 20 per cent of the 40 responding schools indicated that they use in-service training sessions to promote more effective use of audio-visual-materials. Approximately the same number indicated that they use demonstrations by teachers familiar with effective utilization, as well as demonstrations by visiting consultants and experts. Among other methods cited were keeping teachers informed through personal contact and through publications of available materials and new materials, as well as sources of free materials; placing materials catalogues in all departments; organizing student projectionists clubs; assisting teachers in selecting materials; group previews by faculty members; assisting teachers in programming and integrating audio-visual materials in their classroom lesson units; urging teachers to use audio-visual materials in their teaching and encouraging teachers to attend summer-school classes in audio-visual education.

Of the 13 schools stating plans for developing their audio-visual programs one had no specific plans, but hoped to develop its program. Among plans listed by the remaining twelve were: (1) plan to organize an audio-visual committee made up of members of each department; (2) plan to give in-service training to teachers in equipment operation during the pre-school conference in August; (3) plan to purchase more equipment and materials with a view towards expanding the program; (4) plan to build a more complete library of audio-visual source books and other audio-visual literature; (5) plan to organize a camera club; (6) plan to utilize available materials more fully and to take advantage of local and other helpful agencies; (7) plan to try to get a special audio-visual teacher to adequately supervise, teach and distribute equipment and materials; (8) plan to begin a production program of slides and other materials, and (9) to develop an audio-visual aids room and work towards a more adequate budget.

Conclusions

1. The responding schools are definitely audio-visual conscious. All had audio-visual programs of some type. All had some audio-visual equipment. The data seem to indicate that the audio-visual movement has a solid foothold in Florida's Accredited Negro High Schools.

2. The majority of the responding schools—85 per cent—have directors and/or committees. In other words, most of the responding schools have organized programs with one person or several persons (committees) responsible for directing these programs. The data also indicates that the majority of the directors have had some kind of special training in audio-visual education.

3. Although a large number of the schools surveyed owned numerous pieces of certain types of equipment, notably record players and filmstrip projectors (one school had 12 record players for 1600 pupils and another school with 655 students owned 6 filmstrip projectors), not one school had the minimum equipment recommended by AVCPI although several had everything recommended except all-channel television receivers. Despite this fact, however, most schools had a variety of equipment and materials.

4. According to the data, 67.5 per cent of the responding schools housed their audio-visual centers in the school library. According to some audio-visual experts this is undesirable since librarians are not trained in audio-visual techniques, while others feel it is a desirable arrangement because it places all teaching materials—books, magazines, other printed matter and audio-visual materials—in a central source. From the data, it seems that housing the audio-visual center in the library is a widespread practice in Florida schools. Incidentally, no attempt was made to determine whether or not librarians served as audio-visual directors, although several schools indicated that this was the case.

5. The data indicated that procurement was not a problem. All of the responding schools make use of several sources for procuring audio-visual materials. Of particular significance was the fact that 80 per cent of the responding schools make use of free sources of materials. This becomes even more significant in view of the limited audio-visual budgets of the 40 responding schools.

6. Adequate budgets seem to constitute a major problem in the 40 responding schools. In fact, this may be the cause of most of the other problems faced by these schools, since all of them seem to be eager to develop better audio-visual programs. Perhaps more long-range planning and promotional activities would lead to larger audio-visual appropriations (52.5 per cent had no long-range plans for developing their programs) since planning and promotion help to sell the audio-visual program to administrators and others. These suggestions merit some consideration since only 21 of the 40 schools indicated that they had budgets earmarked specifically for audio-visual education.

7. Examination of the data suggests that the responding schools are well aware of the functions of an audio-visual program. Functionally, according to the data, programs were lacking most in local production programs, that is, production of simple, audio-visual materials locally.

8. On the whole, the data indicated that small, rural schools had programs just as good (and in some cases better) as those schools in large, metropolitan counties.

Recommendations

1. Every school should develop a long-range audio-visual program based upon careful, concerted study, with a view towards increasing the effectiveness of the program.

2. Every school should, as an initial step following the development of a long-range plan, secure an adequate budget earmarked specifically for audio-visual education.

3. Every school should appoint a part-time or full-time person (depending upon the size of the school) to direct its program.

4. Every school should work to develop a full program—one which would make use of all kinds of non-projected as well as projected materials.

5. Every school should have as its goal eventual elimination of central projection rooms and the equipping of every classroom for using all kinds of audio-visual materials. A healthy slogan might be, "Every classroom an audio-visual classroom."

6. The in-service training programs in operation in many of the schools should be continued, increased and improved and every teacher and administrator should be urged to attend workshops and special courses in audio-visual education. They should also be urged to join professional audio-visual organizations and to attend meetings of these organizations whenever possible.

7. Every community should be carefully surveyed and a resource file on audio-visual education possibilities set up for use by the entire faculty.

8. All schools should have audio-visual committees with at least one member representing each major subject-matter area comprising these committees.

9. Every school should thoroughly survey, evaluate and improve its use and purchase of audio-visual materials and equipment on the basis of curriculum needs and teacher-preference.

A Study of the Personnel of the Senate in the Eighty-Fourth Congress, 1955-1956 *

by

E. K. Williams

The purpose of this study was to analyze the factors of age, party distribution, education, legislative experience, length of service and occupations of senators in the Eighty-fourth Congress of the United States. Several related studies have been made of the personnel of the Senate. Some of the most significant ones include those of the personnel from the Fifty-fourth to the Fifty-eighth Congresses¹, the Sixty-first Congress², the Sixty-third Congress³, the Sixty-eighth Congress⁴, the Seventy-third Congress⁵ and the Seventy-seventh Congress.⁶

The main sources of data used in this presentation were collected from the **Congressional Directory**⁷ and the **Congressional Quarterly**.⁸ The paucity of data on the lives of several senators included in the **Congressional Directory** imposes some limitation on this analysis.

Age of Senators

The change in the average age of senators has almost been indiscernible within the past fifty years. The increase in the span of life has had no significant impact on the age of senators in Congress. The average age of the senators of the First Congress was forty-eight years⁹ In 1913, the

*The senators used in this analysis include only those who were members of the first session of the Eighty-fourth Congress. William Laird, III, of West Virginia, appointed March 3, 1956, Thomas A. Wofford of South Carolina, appointed April 5, 1956, and Robert Humphreys of Kentucky, appointed June 21, 1956, are not included in this study. They served temporarily until the general election of 1956. See: *Congressional Quarterly Almanac*, XII, 1956, p. 17.

¹The *Election of Senators* (Henry Holt and Company), 1906, pp. 71-99.

²"Congress and the Senate," in *Cyclopedia of American Government*, 1911.

³"The Changing Senate," *North American Review* (August, 1914), 222-34.

⁴"Senate New Style," *Atlantic Monthly* (August, 1924), 252-63.

⁵George H. Haynes, *The Senate of the United States*, II, (Houghton-Mifflin Co.), 1938. This volume also accounts for the previous studies.

⁶Madge M. McKinney, "The Personnel of the Seventy-seventh Congress," *American Political Science Review*, XXXVI (1942), 67-75.

⁷84th Congress, 1st Session, *Congressional Directory* (U. S. Government Printing Office, 1955), pp. 3-157.

⁸*Congressional Quarterly Almanac*, XI, 1955.

⁹Haynes, *op. cit.*, I, p. 43.

average age was 57, and in 1933, 58.¹⁰ In 1942, McKinney concluded that the average age of the senators in the Seventy-seventh Congress was 58.¹¹ In this study (1955-56), the median age of the members of the upper chamber is 57.25.

Haynes contends¹² that the distribution of senators in age-decades is more significant than the average age of senators. In this respect, Table I gives an analysis of the distribution of senators by age-decades. Column seven indicates that more than forty per cent of the senators fall in the age-group from fifty to fifty-nine.

TABLE I
AGE OF SENATORS IN THE EIGHTY-FOURTH CONGRESS*

Age-Decade	Democrats		Republicans		Total	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
80 - 89	2	04.08	---	-----	2	02.08
70 - 79	6	12.24	5	10.63	11	11.45
60 - 69	10	20.40	14	29.78	24	25.00
50 - 59	20	40.81	20	42.55	40	41.66
40 - 49	9	18.36	7	14.89	16	16.66
30 - 39	2	04.08	1	02.12	3	03.12
Total	49	99.97	47	99.97	96	99.97

*The median age for Democrats is 56.75; Republicans 57.75; and for both 57.25. Senator T. F. Green, at the age of 89, became on November 30, 1956, the oldest person ever to serve in Congress. See: *Congressional Quarterly Almanac* XII, p. 16.

This study reveals that more than half of the personnel are fifty-nine years old or older. Of this number, twenty-five Democrats are fifty-eight years or older; and twenty-five Republicans are fifty-nine years or older. A study of the personnel of the Seventy-seventh Congress revealed that half of the senators were fifty-seven or older.¹³ In the present study, approximately eighty per cent of the senators are past fifty. Haynes remarked: ". . . In 1883, 73 per cent of the senators were past fifty years of age. By 1913, that percentage had risen to 79, and by 1933 to 85. . . ." ¹⁴

¹⁰*Ibid.*, II, p. 1044.

¹¹McKinney, *op. cit.*, p. 57.

¹²Haynes, *op. cit.*, p. 1044.

¹³McKinney, *op. cit.*, p. 67.

¹⁴Haynes, *op. cit.*, p. 1044.

Evidence seems to point to the conclusion that the Senate is not growing younger. Conversely, this century has witnessed an imperceptible trend toward an older Senate. This perhaps assures a predominance of conservative ideology in the upper chamber.

Party Distribution

Patterns of party distribution and control are obvious determinants of the type, nature, and quality of legislations that may be enacted by Congress. The integrity of the government at home and its leadership abroad may well be stifled in the geography of politics.

TABLE II
PARTY DISTRIBUTION OF SENATORS BY REGIONS
AND BY STATES

<i>Region</i>	<i>Democrats</i>	<i>Republicans</i>	<i>Total</i>
New England.....	3	9	12
Connecticut.....	0	2	2
Maine.....	0	2	2
Massachusetts.....	1	1	2
New Hampshire.....	0	2	2
Rhode Island.....	2	0	2
Vermont.....	0	2	2
Middle Atlantic.....	1	5	6
New Jersey.....	0	2	2
New York.....	1	1	2
Pennsylvania.....	0	2	2
East North Central.....	2	8	10
Illinois.....	1	1	2
Indiana.....	0	2	2
Michigan.....	1	1	2
Ohio.....	0	2	2
Wisconsin.....	0	2	2
West North Central.....	3	11	14
Iowa.....	0	2	2
Kansas.....	0	2	2
Minnesota.....	1	1	2
Missouri.....	2	0	2
Nebraska.....	0	2	2
North Dakota.....	0	2	2
South Dakota.....	0	2	2
South Atlantic.....	13	3	16
Delaware.....	1	1	2
Florida.....	2	0	2
Georgia.....	2	0	2
Maryland.....	0	2	2
North Carolina.....	2	0	2
South Carolina.....	2	0	2
Virginia.....	2	0	2
West Virginia.....	2	0	2

TABLE II—cont'd.			
<i>Region</i>	<i>Democrats</i>	<i>Republicans</i>	<i>Total</i>
East South Central	8	0	8
Alabama	2	0	2
Kentucky	2	0	2
Mississippi	2	0	2
Tennessee	2	0	2
West South Central	8	0	8
Arkansas	2	0	2
Louisiana	2	0	2
Oklahoma	2	0	2
Texas	2	0	2
Mountain	7	9	16
Arizona	1	1	2
Colorado	0	2	2
Idaho	0	2	2
Montana	2	0	2
New Mexico	2	0	2
Nevada	1	1	2
Utah	0	2	2
Wyoming	1	1	2
Pacific	4	2	6
California	0	2	2
Oregon*	2	0	2
Washington	2	0	2
Total (U. S.)	49	47	96

Of the nine regions of the United States, Table II indicates that the Democratic party asserts political hegemony over four of these, and the Republican party over five. In two regions, East South Central and West South Central, the Democrats have complete control. The Republicans do not exercise complete control over any of the regions. Only the border states of Delaware and Maryland, of the South Atlantic region, elected Republican senators to the Eighty-fourth Congress, while the state of New York elected one Democratic senator from the Middle Atlantic region. If the assumption that the two-party system promotes democracy is valid, then there is an indispensable obligation for Americans to make the two-party system theory a genuine instrument for the furthering of democracy in those states where virtually one party exists.

Education

With respect to the education of the personnel of the Senate, evidence clearly indicates that the formal education of senators substantially surpasses that of the general public. Current data indicate that ninety per cent of the

*Senator Morse of Oregon officially became a Democrat, February 17, 1955.

members of the upper chamber of the Eighty-fourth Congress have graduated or have attended a college, university, or a professional school. Approximately sixty per cent have graduated or attended law school, and forty-two per cent have received a degree in law. The education of senators in this investigation compares favorably with that indicated in previous studies. McKinney found that eighty-eight per cent of the senators of the Seventy-seventh Congress had attended college, professional school, or both.¹⁵ Haynes contends that four-fifths of the senators in 1933 were college trained.¹⁶

The mere fact that the members of the upper house are college trained or legally trained does not guarantee that they are educationally prepared for the complicated task of legislating. A college education does not necessarily prepare one for a specific task. Law-making is a profession which requires special skills and vast knowledge of the many facets of the domestic and international scene. Lawyers may have an excellent background for the profession of law, and still lack the prerequisite for law-making. Robert Bruce comments: "Lawyers are liable to be poor law makers because their mental habit is backward looking. Their whole training has taught them ever to rely on precedents. They worship the past. This has its advantages, but among them is not the facility for meeting needs and anticipating the tomorrow."¹⁷ Perhaps legislators for today need to be more directly prepared for the job that they are expected to do.

Legislative Experience*

Legislative experience of senators prior to their present position has been indicated in an appreciable number of senators. Table III indicates the previous service of

TABLE III
LEGISLATIVE EXPERIENCE IN THE HOUSE OF
REPRESENTATIVES

<i>Terms</i>	<i>Number of Senators</i>
One	4
Two	4
Three	5
Four	2
Five	10
Six	4
Seven	5
Eight	6
Total	40

¹⁵ McKinney, *op. cit.*, p. 70.

¹⁶ Haynes, *op. cit.*, p. 1045.

¹⁷ McKinney, *op. cit.*, p. 70.

*Experience in the legislatures of state, city or county is not included.

senators in the House of Representatives. The data indicate that forty-one per cent of the senators in the Eighty-fourth Congress have formerly served in the House of Representatives as compared with twenty-nine per cent of the senators in the Seventy-seventh Congress.¹⁸ In addition to the legislative experience in the House of Representatives: seventeen senators have served as governors; six as former senators; one as Senate clerk; one as secretary to a senator, and one as Secretary of the Air Force.

Length of Service

Table IV shows that approximately forty-two per cent of the senators have served less than two terms; forty per cent have served only one term; and seventeen per cent have served two or more terms.

TABLE IV
LENGTH OF SERVICE

Terms* and Years	Democrats		Republicans		Total	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Freshmen	4	8.16	5	10.63	9	9.37
Less than one term	15	30.61	16	34.04	31	32.29
0-1 yr. "	4		2		6	
1 yr. "	---		---		---	
2 yr. "	6		8		14	
3 yr. "	---		---		---	
4 yr. "	5		6		11	
5 yr. "	---		---		---	
One Term	18	36.73	21	44.68	39	40.62
6 yr. "	10		2		12	
7 yr. "	2		1		3	
8 yr. "	3		13		16	
9 yr. "	---		2		2	
10 yr. "	3		3		6	
Two Terms	4	8.16	5	10.63	9	9.37
12 yr. "	3		---		3	
13 yr. "	---		1		1	
14 yr. "	---		2		2	
16 yr. "	---		1		1	
17 yr. "	1		1		2	
Three Terms	6	12.24	---	-----	6	6.25
18 yr. "	2		---		2	
20 yr. "	2		---		2	
22 yr. "	2		---		2	
Four Terms	2	4.07	---	-----	2	2.08
28 yr. "	1		---		1	
32 yr. "	1		---		1	
Total	49	99.97	47	99.98	96	99.98

¹⁸McKinney, *op. cit.*, p. 70.

*A term is equivalent to six years.

Occupations

In 1776, John Adams stated: "The representative assembly should be an exact portrait, in miniature, of the people at large. . . . Equal interests among the people should have equal interests in the representative body."¹⁹ The previous occupations of senators in the Eighty-fourth Congress do not approximate the ideal pattern envisioned by Adams.

TABLE V*
PROFESSION OF SENATORS

<i>Profession</i>	<i>Democrats</i>	<i>Republicans</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
Agriculture	7	14	21
Business/Banking	10	18	28
Civic Service and Politics	48	46	94
Journalism	6	4	10
Law	27	33	60
Teaching	11	6	17
D(ent.), E(ng), M(ed.)	2**	2**	4
Veteran	30	32	62

**Includes 2 E(ngineers)

Column four points out that sixty senators were formerly associated with the profession of law. This compares favorably with fifty-nine senators in the Seventy-seventh Congress²⁰ and sixty-four in the Seventy-fourth Congress.²¹ Unquestionably, the profession of law is predominant in the upper chamber. McKinney comments on this issue: ". . . If their [senators] background goes far toward predetermining their votes, the American traditional form of government will be safeguarded, religious freedom will be maintained, business will be protected, and financial interest will not suffer. Labor, particularly unskilled labor, however, may lack champions on Capitol Hill."²² The writer feels that a more equitable election of senators from the major economic and social interests of the United States would be more in line with goals of democracy.

¹⁹Writings, IV, 205, as quoted by Haynes, *op. cit.*, 11, p. 1062.

²⁰McKinney, *op. cit.*, p. 71.

²¹Haynes, *op. cit.*, p. 1064.

²²McKinney, *op. cit.*, p. 75.

*See Table, *Congressional Quarterly Almanac* XI, 1955, p. 26.

Research as a Technique in Curriculum Development

by

Calvin L. Kiah

The concept of the curriculum in the modern American sense has undergone tremendous change during the past half century. If one but pauses to reflect, he will realize that even today when the term curriculum is mentioned, there is the tendency to think of large sheafs of printed material outlining a body of subject matter to be covered or learned. Such requirements would, of course, have been devised or formulated by persons on "higher levels," possibly the State Department of Education and/or, even the State legislature. The lowest echelon for curricular development in this pattern of thinking would be at the local administrative level.

Implications of this approach for the development of instructional materials and procedures are far too numerous to mention in this discussion but one may readily draw general conclusions in this regard. In such a pattern of thinking one sees the classroom teacher as a passive nonentity in the educational process. His job is at best that of an educational middle man who sees to it that this body of learning materials, as handed down, is properly mastered.

Learning, in such a setting also assumes a passive character. It is quantitative in nature, and achievement, in such a system, is in quantitative terms. That is, one who absorbs or memorizes the most has achieved the most.

Such a system as described above tends to place a premium upon subject-matter as an end in itself with little regard for the learner. It is at this point, therefore, where newer curriculum concepts differ quite basically with the more traditionally oriented type. In short, conceptually, the traditional-minded conceive of the curriculum as being served by the learner while the modern approach rates the learner first in importance, served by the curriculum.

One often hears the modern viewpoint herein set forth, expressed with unswerving allegiance professed thereto. One does not find, however, with corresponding frequency, implementation of this principle, at the classroom level. This discussion has as its purpose to present concrete ways of putting these principles into action using research techniques to aid the process.

Some months ago the writer, with the cooperation of the social studies staff of a certain secondary school, set

about to develop social studies curricula which, it was felt, would be in keeping with the philosophical bases underlying the modern school. It was decided that, if it is believed that the curriculum should serve the learner, there should be some study given to determining ways by which the program could best accomplish this task. If the curriculum would serve, learner needs must be discovered in order that such service might be accurately and effectively directed.

A quick glance at the instructional program then in operation seemed to suggest rethinking along modern lines might be worthwhile.

It was felt that to plan an effective social studies program of instruction, the staff would need to have information in the following three problem areas: (1) domestic or family, (2) economic (3) civic.

It was decided that to acquire this information on pupil needs, the staff would ask all pupils in the school to react to a questionnaire which was designed to supply information in the needs areas decided upon by the group.

The questionnaire contained the following items:

1. Do you live with your mother and father?_____
2. If not, with whom do you live?_____
3. Place a check beside the following statements which apply to you:
 - (a) My mother and father are living_____
 - (b) My mother is dead_____
 - (c) My father is dead_____
 - (d) My mother and father are divorced_____
4. The following persons work for a living in my family:
 - (a) Father_____
 - (b) Mother_____
 - (c) Others_____
 1. _____
 2. _____
 3. _____
5. The members in my family perform the following occupations:
 - (a) Father_____
 - (b) Mother_____
 - (c) Others_____
 1. _____
 2. _____
 3. _____

6. The members of my family make the following amounts of money per week:
- Father_____
 - Mother_____
 - Others_____
- _____
 - _____
 - _____
7. How many persons in your family are registered to vote?_____
8. How many in your family actually voted in the last election?_____

Pupil enrollment in the school was 850. Technical difficulties encountered in the process of administering the instrument, however, resulted in a proportion of the data being rendered unusable. Sufficient data were secured, however, to give us leads as to directions to take in our program of curriculum development.

The following data were received:

TABLE I
Domestic Status

<i>Living With Relatives</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent</i>
(1) Living with father and mother.....	285	43
(2) Living with mother.....	189	29
(3) Living with grandparents.....	78	12
(4) Living with aunt and uncle.....	69	11
(5) Living with brother.....	19	3
(6) Living with sister.....	13	2
Total Respondents	653	100

Simple analysis of the above data reveals a considerable proportion of the pupils responding, existing in a domestic relationship at variance with the normal family pattern in our culture, 47% living either with mother alone, grandparents, aunt or uncle, brother or sister. It seems inescapable that conditions such as this should, if unrecognized, have a disconcerting effect upon the school program. It would seem, therefore, that curriculum development would do well to determine the extent to which such social deficiencies may be in part alleviated by arranging instructional patterns in light of these conditions.

TABLE II
Family Organization

<i>Domestic Status</i>	<i>Number</i>
Mother and father living	354
Mother dead	53
Father dead	65
Mother and father divorced.....	75
Total	547

This area of the study was designed to give some idea as to what, if as suspected, would be the cause for domestic instability. Some slight discrepancy will be noted to exist between the total responding to this item and that of the item immediately preceding. However, the characteristic of domestic instability is still markedly present. It will be noted that 354 report that both parents are living, yet in Table I only 285 are living with their parents, a difference of 69.

TABLE III
Employment Status

<i>Members in Family Employed</i>	<i>Number</i>
Father	330
Mother	215
Others	225

The intention in asking for this information was to get some idea as to how much parental influence is present in the home constantly. These data would suggest that adults in the family are of necessity too much concerned with making a living and so are out of the home in some type of gainful employment.

This condition the school program should also be aware of and encompass in its instructional plan.

TABLE IV
Types of Jobs Performed by Members of the Family

<i>Family Member</i>	<i>Job Type</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Father	Labor	205	93
	Business	10	5
	Professional	6	2
		221	100
Mother	Labor (Domestic)	183	78
	Business	30	13
	Professional	21	9
		234	100

The intent of the study in this area is probably quite obvious and as simple as this area seems, knowledge of these data and action upon them by curriculum planners is of tremendous importance to groups really interested in making the school program effective.

It will be noted first of all that the range of employment is exceedingly narrow. For all practical purposes, the typical pupil attending the institution, comes from a home in which economic opportunity is restricted to occupation classifiable as common labor—85% falling in this category. Further analysis of the available occupational opportunity would show that even within this classifica-

tion, occupations engaged in by parents and guardians of this group are of the lowest order, of the type that no other group would wish to perform.

Disregard of this by curriculum planners is to adopt the ostrich technique and stick our education planning heads in the sand and pretend that these conditions hold no concern for us. We are interested in "educating" our children and from thence we resume our usual patterns.

TABLE V
Family Earning Levels

<i>Member</i>	<i>Amount Weekly</i>
Father	\$52.00
Mother	27.30

There has been no effort to compare these earnings with comparable groups in other segments of the culture. Opinion of the planners is that, particularly for the male member, the average seems higher than was anticipated, though in terms of the present high level of the general economy, with the activity of definite union wage scales, there may be foundation for such figures. It may also be that pupil pride translated into reluctance to report too low figures may also have played a part in the seemingly high figures.

This is not to suggest that reported figures are sufficiently high to maintain an adequate existence under present conditions. The observation is only that the opinion of the investigators is that the actual figure may be somewhat less.

Family Registration For Voting

The figure of 1021 members of the families represented in this study as having registered to vote is another category which seems at variance with the community pattern. Registration rolls, it is well known, show far below the number registered as would indicate an effective realization of civic responsibility on part of the segment of the population from which this group comes. It was anticipated by the planners that this would be an area which would also indicate tremendous need for concentration. It is agreed that further study in this area is needed to affirm these findings, or to determine the variable.

Family Voting Record

As could be expected, there were actually fewer family members voting than the number listed as registered. As anticipated, then, there is indication that the instructional program could emphasize this area.

Conclusions

Having assembled the data called for in the instrument it would seem pertinent to draw some basic general conclusions as indicated by the data.

- (1) The family from which pupils come is likely to be an unstable one varying from the pattern considered to be the normal family in our culture.
- (2) That the security, stability and equilibrium of the pupils coming to this school will tend to deviate from that of children coming from homes where normal family relationships exist.
- (3) That behavior patterns of children which vary from what might be considered normal is probably normal behavior for these children.
- (4) That contributory causes of these undesirable family conditions may be found in employment patterns and earning levels.
- (5) That effective curriculum planning must be based upon and take recognition of these all-pervasive factors.
- (6) That the entire school program must be analyzed and organized if it is to aid in alleviation of these cultural deterrents.
- (7) That curriculum organization must take the form of organization around pupils' basic needs proceeding from thence to the more formal study.
- (8) That the curriculum emphasize cultural needs found lacking in pupils' lives.

Suggested Curriculum Patterns and Procedures Based Upon the Study

- A. In view of the manifest instability of the domestic environment, it would seem that areas of study or units such as the following would be very much in order in this school.
 - (1) How can I help my family get more out of life?
 - (2) How important is adequate housing to successful family living?
 - (3) How important to good family living is application of the rule "a penny saved is a penny earned?"
 - (4) What are some rules for strengthening and maintaining strong family ties?
- B. In the area of the economic, the following might represent topics for study:
 - (1) What is the significance of the "Negro Job?"

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- (2) What are some considerations involved when we talk about "making a living?"
 - (3) How does the Negro's economic status affect his general cultural status?

C. Civic.

- (1) May the exercise of one's civic responsibility improve one's cultural status?
- (2) How have we achieved, in our culture, the democratic principle of a "government of, by and for the people?"

It will be noted that the above suggestions make no reference to chapters, syllabi or texts. Each suggestion is in the form of a unit title, deliberately phrased in problem form, based upon known needs, thereby familiar to the pupils and designed to provoke a challenge response within the learner.

There is, though, no intent to discount textual materials. Rather is the converse true. Casual examination will reveal that any or all of the problem areas suggested, for adequate treatment, will lead pupils into vast areas of learning, requiring investigation in many and varied reading materials plus calling on many other types of resources.

It is likewise envisioned that learning experiences organized in this fashion, under guidance of a skillful teacher, will enlist pupil participation at all stages of development of the learning activity; that the learning activities will provide a maximum of opportunity for pupils to literally "get into the act."

It will be recalled that this study was done in the area of the social studies. It is deemed necessary, though to point out that this same principle is applicable in any area of learning. The science group for instance might follow this same pattern or a variation thereof and come up with findings regarding pupil needs in the science area and proceed on a basis of the principles herein set forth. It is felt that such an approach to the determination of learning activities holds the key to effective enlistment of the pupils' genuine participation in instructional experiences provided by the school.

In conclusion, the purpose of this study has been to set forth a suggested procedure by which curriculum organization and presentation may be enhanced by the employment of research techniques in the determination of basic pupil information which in turn may be used in the organization of effective learning experiences.



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